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ABSTRACT

Developed with the support of the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) and the University of Botswana (Africa), this five-week "long vacation" training program includes four modules designed to provide refresher and in-service training for those library assistants who have work experience but have not been able to attend formal classes in their profession. Offered by the Department of Library Studies of the University of Botswana since 1984, the course is open to candidates from all anglophone countries of the Eastern and Southern African subregion and is intended to impart basic professional knowledge to participants in classification, cataloging and indexing, management and administration, and bibliographic and information resources and techniques. The modules, which are designed to be presented during several class sessions, provide text, exercises, and suggestions for further reading. Modules include: (1) "Introduction to Libraries and Information" (Benzies Y. Boadi); (2) "Bibliographic and Information Resources and Techniques" (Frank Gibbons); (3) "Management and Administrative Studies" (Kingo J. Mchombu); and (4) "Practical Classification, Cataloguing and Indexing" (J. Richard Neill). (Author/KM)

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B. Y. Boadi / F. Gibbons
K. J. Mchombu / J. R. Neill:

INTRODUCTION TO LIBRIANSHIP AND DOCUMENTATION

Bonn / Gaborone, April 1987

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INTRODUCTION

A great percentage of the current workforce in information and documentation establishments in the anglophone countries of the Eastern and Southern African subregion lacks formal education in the field of librarianship and documentation. Their training has been merely on-the-job. At the same time, many universities in the same countries are underutilized, not only with regard to the teaching and administrative personnel, but also to infrastructural facilities like student hostels, refectories, classrooms and libraries. These two factors have lead to the establishment of a long vacation training course entitled "Introduction to Librarianship and Documentation" at the Department of Library Studies of the University of Botswana.

The course was initiated by an idea of the late Professor Sam Kotei, at that time Head of the Department; the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) and the University of Botswana pooled resources to provide a specific form of refresher and in-service training for those library assistants who never had the chance to attend formal classes in their chosen profession, in order to re-awake an interest in their dayly work and select the best qualified amongst them for scholarship opportunities in their respective fields. The contents elaborated for the long vacation training course were meant to impart basic professional knowledge to participants in classification, cataloguing and indexing, management and administration, and bibliographic and information resources and techniques.

For each of the above mentioned fields, a teaching module has been designed by one or more staff members of the Department of Library Studies. Each module has been revised over the past years, until a final version was completed. Apart from the current authors of the modules, the following professionals have contributed their share in the development of the training course and this publication: Francis K. Inganji, Wendy A. Simmons, Mabel Dimbungu, Amos P.N. Thapisa, Paul Sturges, and a fair number of guest lecturers during the courses 1984 to 1986. It should also be noted that the whole concept of a long vacation programme could have never materialized without the support of the Vice Chancellor of the University of Botswana, Professor Dr. Thomas Tlou.

The long vacation course "Introduction to Librarianship and Documentation" was conceived as a five-week training programme open to candidates from all anglophone countries of the Eastern and Southern African subregion. It was never intended as a replacement of a full one-year Certificate Course: the most important reason was and will be to allow professional training for the many untrained staff members of libraries and documentation centres, thus enabling them to fulfill their daily routine activities appropriately and according to modern standards, for the benefit of all the potential users of the information establishments in the region. Letters from employers who sent their staff to Botswana show that the courses have been very successful indeed: participants show a higher interest and an increased motivation in their jobs after having returned to their home institutions. This response is encouraging to both implementing institutions, DSE and UB.

So far, three vacation training courses have been held, with altogether 60 participants from about a dozen countries of the subregion. The last course under the 1985-87 agreement between DSE and UB will be held this year. The demand for places and the number of nominations show that such courses could well be run until the year 2000. Instead, national institutions responsible for training of information personnel will be encouraged to mount their own courses on a national level, making use of the modules contained in this publication. This document is the result of hard, sometimes frustrating, but nevertheless in the end enjoyable deliberations which involved many persons. It is hoped that it will be widely used for training purposes in the subregion and beyond!

DSE and UB will develop yet another training course due to be implemented for the first time in 1988: experience has shown that the group of diploma holders in librarianship needs up-to-date refresher training in subjects like management and library automation. A new vacation programme, with new teaching modules, again on a regional level, is under preparation. It would be pleasing to write another foreword on another programme in 1991.

Lutz Hüttemann
March 1987

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Module 1 Introduction to Libraries and Information

The Communication of Information and Ideas: from the oral to the written stage — Session 1

The Communication of Information and Ideas: from printing to the electronic stage — Session 2

Types of library: national and public libraries — Session 3

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B. Boadi

MODULE 1

SESSION 1

THE COMMUNICATION OF INFORMATION AND IDEAS: FROM THE ORAL TO THE WRITTEN STAGE

The ability to communicate information and ideas is one of man's most significant cultural achievements. It is an ability which has been developed over a long period of time and which has passed through different stages of development to attain its present level of sophistication.

The following stages have been identified in the process of development:

(i) The oral stage

(ii) The alphabet or writing stage

(iii) The printing stage, and

(iv) The electronic stage

It should be noted, however, that this categorisation is often made for historical convenience only. The stages are not mutually exclusive: they can, and in fact, co-exist with each other. For example, oral communication is still a very important and widely used method for the transmission of information and ideas in the midst of the written, printed and electronic methods in use today.

The Oral Stage

During this stage, man depended on oral communication as the sole means of transmitting and disseminating information. The corporate tradition, culture and knowledge of the society were thus stored within the human memory. In order to make memorisation and re-call easy, the accumulated knowledge was translated into legends, myths, songs, poems etc and the great story-tellers of the society and the traditional singers, bards and griots became the "knowledge houses" or the "tribal encyclopaedias" of the society. This system for the storage and dissemination of information and ideas still persists in predominantly non-literate societies.

The sole dependence on the human memory for the storage of information and the oral method for its transmission and dissemination has inherent problems:

(i) It lacks permanence; men die and some of the "corporate memory" may die with the custodians.

(ii) The corporate memory stands the danger of being distorted over time.

(iii) There is a limit to the amount and complexity of information than can be retained in the human memory.

(iv) Access to the corporate memory may be restricted in the sense that the custodian can physically be in only one place at any time.

(v) There is an uneven distribution of knowledge; the custodians would have greater access to what is known and could, therefore, assume power over the others by withholding or restricting access to the corporate memory.

The Alphabet or Writing Stage

Man's ability to communicate information and ideas had been greatly assisted by his earlier invention of the spoken word. It has been suggested that human culture really began when man uttered his first word. But if the disadvantages inherent in the oral communication of information and ideas were to be overcome then a better system had to be found.

After the invention of language, the next major step, therefore, was the invention of writing to represent man's thought in graphic symbols. The systematic recording of the corporate knowledge would ensure greater permanence and the wider distribution and accessibility of knowledge.

The following stages have been distinguished in the development of systematic writing:

(i) Cuneiform: a wedge-shaped writing for inscription on soft clay made with a stylus or pointed stick. This was used by the Sumerians about 3500 BC.

(ii) Hieroglyphics: the "holy writing" of ancient Egypt originally used for religious inscription on temple walls or monumental stones. The use of hieroglyphics (which were pictographs or pictures of men, animals and objects) dates from about 3000 BC and later developed into symbolic images or ideographs. These were written on clay tablets, bark of trees, rocks, papyrus, etc.

(iii) The Alphabet: basically a system of recording speech sounds by means of written characters. The alphabet was used by the Phoenicians from about 1100 BC. However, the alphabet, which was derived from hieroglyphics, consisted entirely of consonants. The alphabets were adopted by the Greeks who provided the vowels. The Romans perfected the alphabet which had, by the time of Christ, achieved essentially the form in which it is used world-wide today.

Writing materials were developed along with the development of writing itself. The Sumerians and their successors (the Babylonians and Assyrians) used clay tablets because they had little stone and no papyrus. In addition to clay tablets, the ancient Egyptians also used the bark of trees, rock and particularly papyrus as writing material, and invented the ink with which to write.

Papyrus was to remain the most important writing material until about 200 BC when parchment (the specially treated hides of young cattle, sheep and goats) was invented. Parchment or vellum (a better grade of parchment made from calf skin) was easier to write on and could also be folded more easily than papyrus.

Sheets of papyrus or parchment with writings on them were usually pasted together and rolled around a central cone of wood, metal or ivory. The resulting roll or scroll was the typical "book" in the ancient times. By 100 AD a new book form, the codex, was in use particularly in Rome. The codex was to form the basis for the development of the modern book.

Further Reading

McGarry, K.J.	The changing context of information; an introductory analysis. London, Bingley, 1981.
McGarry, K.J.	Communication and the librarian. London, Bingley, 1975.
Neal, H.E.	Communication from the stone age to the space age. New York, Messner, 1974.

Practical Exercises

1. Members of the class will tell each other a short story in turn outside the classroom. The last to hear the story will tell it to the class. The class will then compare it with a written text of the original story.

2. From a roll book (prepared from a series of photocopies glued side by side) students will examine and comment on the problems of using such a book, particularly for the comparison of parts of the text with each other.

MODULE 1

SESSION 2

THE COMMUNICATION OF INFORMATION AND IDEAS: FROM PRINTING TO THE ELECTRONIC STAGE

The Printing Stage

The next important stage in the development of graphic communication after writing was the invention of printing in Western Europe.

The history of printing is usually dated from 1450 when Johannes Gutenberg of Germany invented the movable press. Long before that, however, the Chinese had been printing, using wood blocks with which they had attained a high level of efficiency. The wood blocks were inked and pressed on paper which the Chinese had invented in 105 AD. The Chinese even practised an early form of printing from movable type although the types were for whole words instead of individual alphabets as Gutenberg was to invent later. The Japanese and the Koreans, neighbours of the Chinese, also had a long tradition of printing and book production.

It was Gutenberg's invention, however, that was to revolutionise the book production process. The movable type made it possible for the individual pieces of type (made from metal alloy) to be dismantled after the completion of one text and assembled again at a later date to form the necessary combination of letters for another text. A "press" helped to bring the rows of letters into contact with the paper, and an oil-based ink ensured that the print did not blot.

Gutenberg's method brought about the following advantages:

(i) Quicker production, and reproduction, of books.

(ii) Cheaper books because of less human involvement in production.

(iii) Greater availability of books and, consequently, greater accessibility to books.

(iv) Swifter spread of ideas from one person to another.

The effect of the movable press on the production of books has been phenomenal. It has been estimated that up to the time of Gutenberg, about 30,000 manuscripts had contained and preserved the world's information store. By about 1600 (i.e., 150 years after Gutenberg's invention) about 1.25 million titles had been printed, and by 1800 the number had increased to about 2 million. Now many more millions of books have been printed and the mechanisation of the printing process has made it possible for books to be produced at greater speeds and with greater flexibility.

The Electronic Stage

As it has already been observed, the oral tradition still forms a very important medium for the communication of information and ideas. The invention of the telephone by Bell in 1876 added another dimension to this mode of communication and made inter-personal transmission of information faster and easier.

The invention of the radio by Marconi fifty years later was to broaden the dimension further and the telegraph, the telex and the television have also added speed and efficiency to the transmission of informaion. But probably the most outstanding invention of modern times for the storage and transmission of information and ideas is the electronic computer.

The immense storage capacity of the computer, its incredible versatility and speed of operation have made it an invaluable asset in every facet of life. The computer is to be found in offices, shops, banks, etc and also in libraries and documentation centres where it is used to store large amounts of information or data.

These storehouses or data bases, as they are called, may be searched for information in one of three ways:

(i) Batch processing: where the items to be searched in the data bases are collected into groups before being searched. The main disadvantage is delay but it is the cheapest form of processing.

(ii) On-line processing: where the computer provides a more immediate and interactive access. This is an expensive form of processing.

(iii) Remote job entry: a combination of batch and on-line processing. An on-line terminal is used to enter jobs to be batch processed by the computer.

What is also fascinating about the computer is the way it has emerged so quickly with the existing media for the storage and transmission of information to increase their capability to an extent previously unheard of. The computer has, for example, merged with printing to herald in the era of electronic printing and the dawn of a "paperless society". There is now not only the electronic journal but there is also the electronic mail. And, linked with the computer, the telephone can be used for sending and receiving teletype messages or for the transmission of picture information by facsimile.

Further Reading

McGarry, K.J.	The changing context of information; an introductory analysis. London, Bingley, 1981.
McGarry K.J.	Communication and the librarian. London, Bingley, 1975.
Neal, H.E.	Communication from the stone age to the space age. New York, Messner, 1974.

Practical Exercises

1. Describe the various ways in which you think the computer may be used in the library.
2. Students will be given the opportunity to visit a printing press and also to examine and discuss microcomputers.

MODULE 1

SESSION 3

TYPES OF LIBRARY: NATIONAL AND PUBLIC LIBRARIES

Before discussing the various types of library a brief historical account of the development of libraries would be appropriate.

After the invention and developent of writing and writing implements, the next important step was the establishment of "storehouses" to keep the products of the invention. Libraries have performed that function and have served as the "memories" of mankind for the past twenty five centuries and more that they have been in existence.

The ancient times saw the establishment of clay and papyrus libraries. There were, for example, the great clay tablet library of King Assurbanipal, King of Assyria, from 686-626 BC and the greatest library of the ancient world, the Alexandrain Library in Egypt which was founded between 300 and 290 BC and which, for the next 900 years, was to remain a great intellectual centre.

The Greeks and the Romans had a great library tradition and many libraries flourished in most of their major cities. It was in fact the Greek library tradition which was exported to Alexandria to found the Alexandrian Library. The Romans established libraries that approached the modern concept of public libraries and by about 350 AD some 28 public libraries had been established in Rome alone.

The early Christians also established libraries for their Christian literature and by 200 AD several Christian libraries had been established with Constantinople becoming, and remaining, a great cultural centre for many years. By the seventh century Islamic libraries had sprung up along with the Muslim world that developed to the east and south. As early as 689 AD libraries rivaling those of Constantinople had been established at Baghdad where a university library providing copying and translating facilities for scholars had also been established. By the tenth century magnificent libraries had been established in Muslim cities all over.

The Middle Ages found the establishment of monastic and cathedral libraries some of which, like the cathedral libraries at Durham and Canterbury, stored hundreds of collections of books. The Middle Ages also marked the rise of European universities and the beginning of some of the great European university libraries of today.

The history of libraries from the end of the Middle Ages to the modern times has been dominated by Gutenberg's invention of the movable press in the 15th Century and the consequent dawn of the age of the printed book. The invention dramatically quickened the pace of the printing of books and made it possible for new ideas to be disseminated to thousands of people instead of a few score. Learning flourished and so did books. With the greatly increased availability of books various kinds of libraries (university, national, private, etc) were established. They grew in size and at a very great pace.

Libraries are now generally grouped into the following categories:

(i) National libraries

(ii) Public libraries

(iii) Academic libraries

(iv) School libraries

(v) Special libraries

National Libraries

The functions of national libraries vary from nation to nation but they include the following:

(i) The collection, under legal deposit, of the national literary output and its preservation for posterity.

(ii) The collection of materials concerning the nation wherever published.

(iii) The publication of a national bibliography.

(iv) The development and maintenance of the world's best literature.

(v) The provision of a national reference service.

(vi) The co-ordination of library resources of the nation through the development and maintenance of union catalogues, the co-ordination of exchanges, inter-library loans, etc.

(vii) The provision of leadership in the development of the nation's library and information system in training library staff for other libraries, in encouraging the best methods and techniques in library and information work, etc.

In some countries, particularly in developing countries, it may not be found expedient to establish a national library. In such cases an academic library, the national public library, the national archives or any other appropriate national institution may perform these functions.

Public Libraries

A public library is a library that is provided wholly or partly from public funds. Its use is not restricted to any class of persons in the country but is available to all.

Public libraries, or at any rate libraries with some access to the public, have been in existence for a very long time. There were such libraries during the Greek and Roman eras, and Islamic libraries had provided even greater access to the public.

The modern concept of the public library, however, is just over one hundred years old and dates from 1850 when laws were passed in Europe and America to ensure the provision of free public library services for all. There had been public libraries offering lending and reference services before then but in most cases the services had to be paid for.

In developing countries, the public library is an even newer concept. The first national public library service in tropical Africa, for instance, was established by legislation in 1950. Many such national public library services have been established since then. Before that date, however, whatever public library services that were available had been provided on much the same lines as their European and American predecessors; they had mostly been subscription libraries and had been the preserve of the elite in the society.

The aim of the public library is to support the personal development of the individual, to contribute to his quality of life and thereby enrich his participation in community and other development programmes.

This broad aim of the public library may be achieved through the following objectives:

(i) Education: To provide facilities for the educational development of the individual at all levels, whether such development is pursued through the formal or non-formal process.

(ii) Information: To give the public quick access to accurate information over the whole range of human knowledge.

(iii) Culture: To provide a centre for the appreciation of local and international culture and to actively promote the participation in all the arts.

(iv) Leisure and Recreation: To provide general reading material and to encourage its active use for leisure and recreational purposes.

The public library may serve its community through the provision of central reference and lending facilities or through local services such as branch libraries, mobile libraries, book box services and postal services.

Further Reading

Amaeshi, B.	Public library purpose in underdeveloped countries: the case of Nigeria. *Libri*, 35(1) March 1985, 62-69.
Gates, J.K.	Introduction to librarianship, 2nd ed. New York, McGraw Hill, 1976.
Harrison, C. and R. Beenham	The basics of librarianship, 2nd ed. London, Bingley, 1985.
Line, M. and J. Line, eds.	National libraries. London, ASLIB, 1979.

Practical Exercises

1. (a) If your country has a national ibrary, or an institution performing the role of a national library, compare its functions with those listed above and show how it is trying to achieve the functions.

   (b) If your country has no national library suggest a national institution which would best perform the functions of a national library. Give reasons for chosing that institution.

2. Suggest ways in which the services of the public library in developing countries may be made to relate to the needs of the users.

MODULE 1

SESSION 4

TYPES OF LIBRARY: ACADEMIC, SCHOOL AND SPECIAL LIBRARIES

Academic Libraries

An academic library is that library which is established to serve a university, a university college and any other institution which forms part of or is associated with an institution of higher education.

The primary function of an academic library is to contribute towards the teaching and research programmes of the university. The principal objective of an academic library therefore is to serve the needs of the main categories of user, namely:

(i) The undergraduate students

(ii) The post-graduate students

(iii) The academic staff

(iv) The research staff

For the undergraduate students, the library usually provides materials specifically designed to meet their requirements. These may be multiple copies of text-books and a good collection of recommended background reading.

An academic library usually provides resources and services of sufficient range to support the various teaching and research programmes of the university. The library will therefore offer a general collection of materials of common interest to several fields including the most recent editions as well as those of historical value.

It will also build up collections of general and specialised reference materials, manuscripts, monographs, archival materials, newspapers and dissertations and other relevant research materials.

To enable the users to know the extent and range of the resources and services available to them, academic libraries usually conduct user education programmes for their users, particularly the students. Printed guides explaining the layout of the library and the services provided are also usually distributed to all new members.

In some places, particularly in developing countries where the university library may be the only well developed library, the services of the library may be extended to members of the local community and other bona fide users.

School Libraries

A school library is an organised collection of books and other learning materials placed in a school for the use of teachers and pupils, but usually for pupils.

The objectives of a school library are:

(i) To support the teaching programme of the school.

(ii) To further the general intellectual development of the pupils, and

(iii) To help the pupils to develop skills in the use of books and libraries.

The trend, over the past few years, has been the transformation of the typical text-book orientated school library into a resource centre with multi-media collections where information in its varied forms may be exploited by both pupils and teachers in close collaboration with the librarian.

As in academic libraries, user instruction should form an important function of a school library.

Special Libraries

A special library exists to serve a specialised body of users within a definite subject field.

Special libraries are usually attached to parent organisations which may be research institutions, industrial or commercial concerns, government departments, societies or associations, etc. They may also be special or subject collections in public and university libraries.

The basic characteristics which differentiate special libraries from the other types of library are:

(i) The limited nature of their subject coverage: the parent organisations to which special libraries are attached often have specific instead of general interests, e.g. agriculture, geology, medicine, etc. These specific interests are therefore reflected in the subject coverage of special libraries.

(ii) The kinds of people they serve or who use their services: special libraries usually restrict their services to people who belong to the parent institutions to which they are attached and which support them.

(iii) The predominant characteristic of smallness: although there are some big special libraries, in general special libraries tend to be small with an equally small number of staff.

(iv) The close relationship that usually exists between the library staff and the users: the library staff must know the needs of the users very well to be able to supply the necessary materials. Co-operation between the users and the library staff is therefore very important.

(v) The services they offer and the emphasis they place on the information function: services like current awareness, selective dissemination of information (SDI),abstracting and indexing, etc form an important function of special library work and are often provided

> in anticipation of the need for them. Special libraries also tend to concentrate on the information itself rather than the documents which contain the information. Speed in the supply of the information is also a very essential part of special library work.

Special libraries stock basic, frequently used and potentially useful materials to meet both the current and anticipated needs of their users. These include books but particularly periodicals, pamphlets, report literature, reprints, conference proceedings, standards, patents, and other documents which give current information.

Further Reading

Gates, J.K.	Introduction to librarianship, 2nd ed. New York, McGraw Hill, 1979.
Harrison, C. and R. Beenham	The basics of librarianship, 2nd ed. London, Bingley, 1985.

Practical Exercises

1. Describe the stock and services in

   (a) a school library

   (b) an academic library

2. List and describe briefly the services that could be offered in a special library.

MODULE 1

SESSION 5

PRINCIPLES OF LIBRARIANSHIP

The practice of librarianship is based on certain basic principles. A principle is a guide for action and therefore a principle of librarianship is a guide for action for librarians with regard to the form that libraries and information services should take, the services they should provide, the philosophy they should adopt.

As guides for action, principles of librarianship should ideally be of equal relevance to all types of library and information services. This makes the principles universal. As guides, the principles should also be useful in helping to decide the kind of action that should be taken in changing situations or in different environments. Thus their universality aside, local conditions may influence the details of the application of the principles. For instance, the interpretation and application of some of the principles in the provision of services in largely literate societies, as in developed countries, would of necessity have to be different from their interpretation and application in predominantly non-literate and oral societies, as in most developing countries.

Some of the principles seem so self-evident that very often librarians and other information workers take them for granted or, what is even worse, neglect their relevance but a service that neglects the principles upon which it is based is a service that lacks a sense of direction and which therefore stands the danger of losing its usefulness. For relevance of service the principles should always be made to govern the provision of library and information services.

The following are some of the basic principles:

(i) Libraries (used here to include information and documentation centres) are for the storage and dissemination of information. As it was noted in an earlier session, libraries have been storehouses of knowledge for over twenty-five centuries now. Another equally important function of libraries is the dissemination of the knowledge or information which they contain. Without this, libraries would remain mere storehouses of knowledge and their value to society would be very minimal. Librarians therefore have to adopt systems of service that will ensure that information or knowledge contained in the storehouses will be available to whoever may need it.

(ii) Libraries are for users. This is a cardinal principle of librarianship, a principle on which most of the other principles may be said to hinge. If this principle is acknowledged then the users will always be considered as the central element of the library and information services and efforts will be made to gear the services towards the satisfaction of their needs.

(iii) Libraries must provide users with guides and other finding lists. The provision of such guides as catalogues, indexes and other finding lists will enable the users to select the documents or records that may be of interest to them.

(iv) Libraries must be able to provide adequate access to the documents or records users may wish to consult. This principle is a sequel to the preceding principle. Guides inform users about the existence of documents or records. After users have selected the documents they wish to consult, libraries must ensure that they have physical access to these documents or the surrogates of them.

(v) Libraries must have a subject arrangement. Since libraries are storehouses of knowledge, it seems self-evident that an arrangement of the contents of the storehouses into some form of subject grouping will facilitate access to the contents. The various classification schemes in use today are aimed at achieving this objective.

(vii) Libraries must be cost-effective. Many libraries are operated without adequate regard to the cost-effectiveness of the operations. Libraries are publicly-supported institutions. They should therefore adopt practices that will make them not only efficient but also cost-effective.

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Mchombu, K.J. On the librarianship of poverty. *Libri*, 32 (5) 1982, 241-250.

Urquhart, D. The principles of librarianship. Leeds, Wood Garth, 1981.

Practical Exercises

1. In addition to those already discussed suggest other principles on which you think the practice of librarianship may be based.

2. Suggest ways by which the services provided by your library may be made more efficient and cost-effective.

MODULE 1

SESSION 6

LIBRARIES IN DEVELOPMENT: THE ROLE OF LIBRARIES IN FORMAL AND NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Formal education is generally taken to mean the kind of education which one receives in school as opposed to that received independently or on-the-job. At all levels of formal education (that is, from the primary to the tertiary level) the library has an important supporting role to plav. At the primary level, for instance, the school library has the important function of actively participating in the school programmes so as to meet the information needs of both teachers and pupils and, in particular, to help the pupil in his individual intellectual development. At the higher educational levels, the libraries of the colleges, universities and other institutions of higher learning exist to support the teaching and research programmes of their parent institutions. Without this vital support these educational institutions would find it extremely difficult, if not impossible, to carry out their programmes.

Non-formal education is education which takes place out of school, or education which is received outside the specifically laid down school years. Like formal education this type of education also needs the all important support of libraries. This is where the public library has an important role to play. It may be recalled that one of the major functions of the public library is educational and involves the provision of facilities for the educational development of the individual at all levels, regardless of whether the educational development is pursued through the formal or non-formal process.

There are many people who pursue all kinds of different courses and educational programmes outside of formal education institutions. They pursue these programmes for various reasons. Some may do it for self improvement, that is, without any specific courses and examinations in mind; some may work towards specific courses and examinations, e.g. GCE, professional and academic examinations, while others (particularly in developing countries) may pursue adult literacy programmes and basic instructions in relevant subjects, e.g. agriculture, health, civic education, etc. In all these activities the public library is the information source around which everything revolves. The public library therefore has the important role of supporting these educational programmes with the required information services. This makes the public library, said to be the poor man's university, a very important constituent of a nation's overall educational system and also an important instrument for national development.

To enable the public library to provide this essential service, it has to work in close collaboration with the various user groups which must first be identified. Working with the following organisations would help in this respect:

(i) The Ministry of Education - for the various educational programmes over which it exercises control.

(ii) Schools, colleges and other institutions of higher learning in the community.

(iii) Adult education and extension agencies (e.g. Ministry of Social Welfare and Community Development and similar institutions which are concerned with the promotion of adult education and other non-formal education programmes).

Such close collaboration will make it possible for the librarian to:

(i) Know the study programmes and areas of activity of the various groups and thereby identify their information needs. With this knowledge the librarian will be in a better position to stock the library with books and other documents that will relate to the identified needs of the users.

(ii) Give talks to the various users about the library and its services, and plan other publicity activities, (e.g. displays and exhibitions, etc) aimed at specific user groups.

(iii) Plan study space, meeting rooms, opening hours and other facilities with the various user groups and their programmes in mind.

(iv) Participate in plans to provide library facilities for students and other users in areas without such facilities through book boxes, reading rooms, etc.

Further Reading

Jessup, F. Libraries and adult education. Unesco Bulletin for Libraries, 27(6) November 1973, 306-315.

Kibirige, H.M. Libraries and illiteracy in developing countries: a critical assessment. Libri, 27(1) 1977, 54-67.

Mohamedali, O.N. Practical agricultural information in East Africa. Libri, 27(4), 1977, 341-351.

Practical Exercise

List the institutions concerned with non-formal education in your country and describe the services given them by the national public library service. Suggest ways in which the services may be improved.

MODULE 1

SESSION 7

LIBRARIES IN DEVELOPMENT: THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY INFORMATION SERVICES

Community information service is a service that helps people to solve some of their daily problems or to raise the quality of their lives. People often need to know something about the community in which they live, to have answers to some basic questions about the community. The required information may be about where, and how, to obtain services within the community or advice on what action to take in certain situations. People may, for instance, seek information or advice on how to buy property, where to obtain a loan for a project or the other, or on aspects of health, education, agriculture, government, etc. In most cases the required information may already exist in the community and somebody in the community can provide the inforamtion or give the right advice. However, the information may exist only as "non-book information", that is, information which may not have been properly documented or information that may not be readily and easily obtained from books. Community information service tries to mobilise such information and make it readily available.

Libraries are the ideal place for the provision of such a service and some public libraries have started to get seriously involved in community information service. Hitherto, public libraries had limited their informational role to the provision of information obtained from published reference sources: the encyclopaedias, year books, dictionaries, various kinds of national and international directories, etc that is, reference sources which do not normally contain information about the local community and which are therefore most unhelpful in answering questions about the community.

To be able to provide a community information service, such published sources of information may not be necessary. What will usually be required are:

(i) Local, up-to-date and relevant sources which are usually pamphlets, leaflets, brochures, circulars, posters, etc which are often put out by government agencies, parastatal organisations and private institutions.

(ii) Files of information created by librarians themselves from materials taken from newspapers, radio announcements, correspondence with government officials, organisations, individuals, etc.

(iii) Referral services - referral to other people or agencies where the required information or advice may be obtained. For this service the library will need to keep its own indexes of names, addresses and telephone numbers of people and organisations and the subjects which they deal with. It is important to keep information on the people and organisations as current as possible. It will also be advisable to have a "follow through" service, that is, to check from both the enquirer and the contact person or agency whether the referral was appropriate and whether the enquirer received the service requested.

If public libraries are to live up to their objective of providing access to information for all people in their communities then community information service is an aspect of their service which they should take seriously.

Further Reading

Bunch, A. Community information services; their origin, scope and development. London, Bingley, 1982.

Library Association (U.K.) Working Party on Community Information. Community information: what libraries can do. London, Library Association, 1980.

Turick, D. Community information services in libraries. New York, Broker, 1978.

Practical Exercise

Listed below are examples of areas in which a community information service may be asked for information or advice. Add as many such areas as you can think of to the list and indicate against each of them the organisation (or organisations) in your community to which you would refer enquirers for information or advice if your community information service was not able to give such information or advice itself:

(i) Agriculture

(ii) Career

(iii) Education

(iv) Housing

(v) Transportation

MODULE 1

SESSION 8

LIBRARY PROMOTION: PLANNING

Library promotion (at times referred to as library publicity or public relations for libraries) has the objective of advertising the library to the community of users and potential users. The purpose is to make the users aware of the existence of the library and the services it can offer. All libraries, irrespective of type or size, need to undertake promotional activities. Very often the absence of such publicity leads to much ignorance as to the purpose of the library, its resources and services and what it can do for an individual.

Library promotion programmes have to be properly planned if they are to be effective. The factors that have to be considered in planning such programmes are:

(i) Knowing the community of users and their information needs. Good knowledge of the community of users and their information needs (real as well as potential) is necessary for the planning of appropriate promotional programmes. The information needs may be ascertained through various survey methods, such as interviews, questionnaires, observation, etc. As needs are not static, periodic surveys will be necessary to be able to notice any changes in the information needs.

(ii) Identifying groups within the community and directing the programmes at them. The user community may be made up of different groups with different interests. Directing a common promotional programme at them may not be effective. Appropriate programmes directed at specific target audiences would be a more effective strategy.

(iii) Knowing the exact message that is to be communicated to the users and potential users. This would demand thorough knowledge and understanding of the goals, objectives and priorities of the library and an interpretation of this knowledge into appropriate messages to be conveyed to the users and potential users.

(iv) Choosing the method (or methods) to be used in conveying the message to the users. There are various publicity methods that may be used e.g. exhibitions and displays, various types of printed materials, the media, etc. The method that will be used will depend on the target audience and the type of message that is to be conveyed.

(v) Deciding who will do the promotional programme. Ideally someone on the staff with some training in public relations or publicity work would be the best person to handle the promotional programmes. However, this ideal cannot be achieved in most situations. The practice therefore is to share the responsibility for carrying out the programme to interested and capable members of staff, under the auspices of a co-ordinator. If the library is attached to a large organisation with its own Public Relations Department then the services of the Department may be used.

Other important factors that need serious consideration in promotional programmes are:

(i) The need for continuous publicity. To be effective, library promotion programmes should not be organised sporadically. They must be a continuous process in order to maintain constant user awareness of the library and the services it has to offer.

(ii) The need for evaluation. The programmes should be constantly evaluated to ascertain if they are reaching the target audience, if they are exerting the desired impact on the users and if there is any visible change in the use of the library as a result of the programmes. Strategies for future programmes will depend on the results of the evaluation.

(iii) The public relations value of personal service. Personal service is a very important component of any library promotion programme and the success of the programme will largely be determined by the importance that is attached to personal service. Elaborate programmes may be prepared and launched but if the librarian meets users with indifference, disdain or rudeness (particularly users who may be coming to the library in response to the programmes) he is not likely to retain the patronage of the users and would therefore be undoing whatever good publicity the programme may have achieved for the library.

Further Reading

Edsall, M.S. Library promotion handbook. London, Oryx Press, 1980.

Harrison, K.C. Public relations for librarians, 2nd ed. Aldershot, Gower, 1982.

Practical Exercises

1. You have been asked to plan a programme to promote the services of the library in which you are currently employed. Indicate, with reasons, the different categories into which you would group the users for specific messages.

2. For this exercise the class will be divided into small groups, each of which will consider the case study of the Teacher Training College library, reported below, and prepare a plan for a promotional campaign. Each group will need to select a chairman to organise the discussions and a secretary to note down decisions. The Chairman will report on the proposed programme at the end of the exercise for discussion and comparison.

   The plan will need to include the following:

   (i) Identification of groups to whom the message will be directed.

   (ii) An idea of the kind of messages that the programme should communicate to the groups.

   (iii) The timing and frequency of the activities.

   (iv) The various methods of publicity to be used (this will help you to start thinking about methods, which will be discussed in detail in the next session).

The Teacher Training College - a case study

The Permanent Secretary for Education has just returned from an international conference on libraries in Teacher Training Colleges. He has asked you to prepare recommendations for the promotion of the libraries of Teacher Training Colleges. The situation you face is this:

> Each Teacher Training College in the country does have a library but they are mostly staffed by people with no library training; they have very small annual budgets and

therefore have few books and poor facilities. The Ministry of Education is considering a pilot project at one Teacher Training College to provide appropriate finance, staff and materials so that it can be an example for the others. The National University validates the courses at Teacher Training Colleges, but has not yet paid any attention to the quality of library facilities provided. The National Library Service is in a position to offer training and advisory facilities, but this has not been done so far. Most of the lecturers in the Teacher Training Colleges prefer their students to learn by rote from their lecture notes, and take very little interest in the library. This is the method that the students are used to from their school days and they seem quite content with it.

MODULE 1

SESSION 9

LIBRARY PROMOTION: METHODS

Library promotion programmes can range from the very simple to the very elaborate, using any of the available methods. However simple or elaborate the programme may be, due attention must be given to the method that will be used to convey the message. The effectiveness of the programme will largely depend on the appropriateness of the chosen method and its ability to reach the target group.

The following are some of the available methods:

(i) The media. The use of the media for publicity is one of the most effective ways of putting a message across to the public. The media (i.e. newspapers, radio and television) may be used in one of the following ways: press conferences, press releases and news items, announcements and feature programmes for regular newspaper, radio or television messages. As in all publicity cases, but particularly in the use of the media, the librarian must be sure exactly what message it is that he wants to convey, why and when he wants the message conveyed and to whom the message is to be directed.

(ii) Printed materials and publications. There is a wide range of printed materials and publications that libraries often issue. Well-planned and distributed, these publications can be used effectively for library publicity. The publications include library brochures and guides, book-lists, bibliographies and annual reports. Other print materials which are not often issued by libraries but which are good publicity materials are newsletters, posters and calendars. Library stationery, book plates, overdue notices and other seemingly insignificant print material can also be turned into effective publicity material.

(iii) Displays and exhibitions. Displays and exhibitions have a special audio-visual effect and appeal which the other publicity materials do not have. With their books, music, maps, pictures, illustrations and the various print and non-print collections, libraries have excellent materials with which to publicise their resources and services. Exhibitions and displays may be held on themes of local or topical interest or as a means of drawing the attention of users (and especially non-users) to particular aspects of the library's resources and services. The exhibits need not be confined to the materials in the library. The exhibitions and displays will be given additional appeal with the inclusion of related artefacts and non-library materials. An exhibition on handicrafts, for instance, would be greatly enriched if in addition to the books, illustrations, etc specimens of the various handicrafts were also displayed.

(iv) Library Orientation Programmes. The objective of library orientation programmes is to make the users aware of the range of the resources of a library, the services it provides and the ways by which users may avail themselves of the resources and services. Library orientation programmes are therefore very important for library publicity. The programmes range from tours of the library (which may be conducted or self-guided) lectures, talks, the use of tapes/slides, to structured instructional programmes. By the nature of their users and the services they provide, different libraries need different approaches to library instruction programmes. The public library, for instance, needs to adopt different instructional techniques from an academic library as much as the techniques of an academic library need to differ from those of a special library. Although the approaches may differ, the purpose remains the same, that is, to open up the resources of the library to the users for maximum utilisation.

Further Reading

Edsall, M.S. Library promotion handbook. London, Oryx Press, 1980.

Harrison, K.C. Public relations for librarians, 2nd ed. Aldershot, Gower, 1982.

Practical Exercises

1. You have been asked by your librarian to prepare a brochure on your library as part of a campaign to publicise the library. What sort of information would you consider important for inclusion in the brochure, and why?

2. Prepare a press release to announce the news described below:

> A new librarian-in-charge has just been appointed for a recently opened branch library in a densely populated and lively district of your city. The library service wishes to exploit this fact and in the process remind people of the new library.

The press release will need to include facts about the library, the person appointed to the post and some information about what he or she hopes to achieve in the job. Note also that press releases should be written in simple and uncomplicated styles and should also be brief while being informative.

Module 2 Bibliographic and information resources and techniques

Session 1	Introduction to librarianship and documentation work
Session 2	Forms of recorded information
Session 3	Indexing and dissemination of information
Session 4	Reference books and reference library work

F. Gibbons

Section 1 INTRODUCTION TO LIBRARIANSHIP AND DOCUMENTATION WORK

Librarianship

What is librarianship? You will be able to find a variety of definitions in books on the subject. However, for our purposes we will use the following:- Librarianship is the systematic selection, acquisition, organisation, and preservation of a collection of information records to meet the needs of a particular community or group and the dissemination of information from that collection to its users.

Documents

Another term which can be used for "information record" is "document". That word is used to describe any form of recorded information:- manuscript, printed publication, pictorial representation, audio record, video record etc. Libraries collect many different forms of recorded information for the use of their clients. Librarians also classify, catalogue, and index each document to enable users to find the material which they need. However, some documents, periodicals, for example, may contain in each issue a number of different papers or articles by various authors, each on a different subject. Many books will also contain a variety of chapters on different subjects, sometimes by different authors. Libraries can usually do no more than assign such periodicals and books to the broad subject area with which they deal. It is impossible in the average library to index in-depth the contents of individual papers appearing in books, periodicals and other information records.

Documentation

Now let us consider documentation. Again you will find various explanations of the term in the professional literature. The following will suffice for the present purposes:- Documentation is the collection and indexing of information on a specific subject and the dissemination of that information to those considered to have need of it. The essence of this definition is that the documentalist concentrates upon a specialised subject field. Within that subject area he attempts to index in depth all the information which he can find. This information may be in a periodical article, a chapter in a book, or in some other format. Because of the narrower focus of his attention the documentalist is able to index to an extent not possible to the librarian of a university, public or other library covering a wide range of subjects. To the documentalist each periodical article, each chapter in a book, can be considered a "document" in its own right. The librarian has usually neither the staff nor the resources to do this.

Information

We must next ask the question "What is information?". This is by no means as easy a question to answer as it might at first appear. There are many learned arguments as to the nature of information. For our purposes, however, it can be defined quite simply as "facts about subjects". New information is constantly being produced because new facts are continually being identified.

How is new information originated? There are two ways in which new facts can become known. Firstly, scholars throughout the world are working in every area of human knowledge in an effort to discover new information or sometimes to revise or change existing ideas. Secondly, new facts come into being daily with the new events which happen in our own lives and in the world about us.

The investigation of scholars in quest of new information is known as research. Scientists experiment in their laboratories in an attempt, for example, to find new ways to cure disease or to discover new facts about the animal, plant and mineral world. Social scientists study the activities of people in society to try to reach new understandings of human actions and motivation. Historians and archaeologists delve into the past to attempt to uncover new data about former civilisations and the history of our own society.

The coming of the computer has made possible the recording, storage, processing, and dissemination of information more effectively than ever before. Modern society is sometimes called "the information society" because access to the information needed in every aspect of our personal and communal lives is more readily accessible than at any previous period in history. Information is the key to decision making at all levels of society from the international scene to the domestic household. Without information society would perish; with accurate information available to decision makers at the crucial time mankind can prosper.

Information Science

A science of information has developed in the twentieth century with contributions from many disciplines:- philosophy, psychology, mathematics, behavioural science, computer technology, librarianship, documentation and many more. The study of the nature of information, its origins, transfer through various languages and media of communication, absorption into knowledge by the human mind; its storage, retrieval and dissemination: all these themes are the subject matter of what has become known as "information science" (in Europe, now often called "informatics"). We will, however, deal with the subject at the level of the beginner in librarianship and documentation.

Making new information known

How is new information made known to society? Scholars and research workers publicise their findings in a number of ways. For the university researcher the chosen means may be by the presentation of a dissertation or thesis through which the writer will hope to attain a higher degree marking the success of his research. For a doctorate, a Ph.D., to be awarded the presentation of new information is an essential requirement. So dissertations and theses represent a record of the progress of knowledge in many fields of research. The research worker in government service may write up the results of his research investigations in the form of a report to superiors. In industry, reports are also used but another form in which new information may be presented is in a patent specification in which the details are given of a new invention. In many cases a researcher will be likely to publish news of his work in the pages of a periodical specialising in his subject field. Of the thousands of periodicals published throughout the world many are produced for the sole purpose of affording scholars the means by which they can disseminate information to fellow researchers. Their fellow-workers can be advised of work completed or in progress. Duplication of effort can be avoided and researchers can build upon and develop the ideas of their predecessors.

The second type of new information consists of the new events which occur daily in society. TV, radio, films, and newspapers are the media by which this information is publicised. To the historian, for example, the vast amount of filmed record which charts the history of the twentieth century is a major source of contemporary information. Recordings of radio or television broadcasts, when available, are also invaluable. Newspaper records of events now extend over hundreds of years. Governments contribute to the flow of new information by the issuing of new laws, orders and proclamations which govern society. Speeches made in the legislature of many countries are recorded in printed publications published by government. These official documents become part of the information store of society.

Libraries and information centres can only deal with recorded information. Although a television or radio broadcast conveys information that data cannot be collected by a library or information centre unless a video or audio recording has been made available to the library. Similarly, an individual may possess knowledge unobtainable from any other source but unless he records that information in some form so that it can be acquired by a library or information centre it cannot become part of a library's information store.

It is important for librarians and information workers to remember that much information is unrecorded. Sometimes when a search of recorded information sources fails a librarian will be able to put his enquirer in touch with an individual or organisation having knowledge of the subject. Methods by which librarians/information scientists can keep informed of alternative information sources are discussed later in this paper.

Primary, secondary, and tertiary sources of information

When an information source contains material appearing for the first time it is described as a "primary source". Information is often presented many times in different forms to meet the needs of various audiences. When a document contains material which has already been recorded somewhere else it is described as a "secondary source". The term "secondary" does not imply that the information contained is of lesser importance. It is essential to "re-package" information to meet different user needs. What is required by the student would be unacceptable to the research scholar. Encyclopaedias are examples of "secondary information sources". Here the world's knowledge is available in summary form for the student or general reader. A subject specialist would be unlikely to require an encyclopaedia article in his own area but he may make use of the encyclopaedia to find information on a subject outside his own field.

Some writers distinguish a third type of information source, the "tertiary" source. What is contained in a tertiary source is neither primary nor secondary information about subjects but indications as to where information can be found. A bibliography is an example. It lists books which can be consulted for information on subjects. Another example is a directory which lists individuals or organisations connected with specific subjects.

In practice, papers containing primary information are often published alongside articles presenting secondary information. This is often the case with periodical articles. In the survey which follows the forms of recorded infromation which usually contain a high proportion of primary material are listed first with those usually consisting of secondary material following. All are important to librarians/information scientists.

Periodicals

A periodical can be simply described as a publication which appears at intervals which may or may not be regular. Usually librarians use the term to refer to publications appearing weekly, monthly or quarterly, under the same title each time, with a distinguishing number for each issue. Many publications appear annually and these are usually called "serials". In the United States, however, the term "serial" is used to denote any periodical.

An important feature of a periodical is that it will normally consist of a number of separate papers or "articles" usually by different writers. Other items such as reports, letters, book reviews may be included. Some periodicals are of general interest covering all subjects; others concentrate on one subject and all articles will deal with aspects of that subject. General booksellers and newsagents display popular periodicals on general topics and on hobbies and interests such as sports, gardening etc. This type of periodical is usually described under the term "magazine" by the public.

Many periodicals use words like "proceedings", transactions" or "journal" in their titles. This is because many originate from societies and record the transactions or proceedings of the society at meetings when papers may be presented by members and later published in the society's periodical. "Journal" means a daily record and again derives from the recording of the day by day actitivities of a society. Many writers use the term "journal" as a synonym for "periodical". You should not allow yourself to become confused by the use of words like "magazines", "journals", "serials", "periodicals" which all describe the same type of publication.

Periodicals are important sources of information. Their advantages as information sources are as follows:-

a. They are more up to date than books. A book may take months or even years to prepare and publish.

Periodicals, appearing at frequent intervals, can contain more current information, often, as stated above, appearing for the first time.

b. It is possible to discuss in a periodical article highly specialised, complex subjects on which there may not be sufficient material to justify the publication of a book or pamphlet.

c. A vast amount of information is published in periodicals. Many thousands of periodicals are published, with four, twelve, or fifty two issues per year. It is the expansion of the number of published papers in periodicals which has largely been responsible for "the information explosion".

Publishers of periodicals

Where do periodicals originate? Various types of organisation publish periodicals. One of the most important sources are the learned societies and professional associations. A learned society is an organisation which exists to promote the study and development of a specific subject e.g. English, economics, chemistry etc. It may include people who earn their living in professional practice in that subject field but can also have as members other people who simply have special interest in the subject. A professional association is a grouping of people who work in the same profession. It may award diplomas and certificates of competence to its members to indicate the achievement of appropriate standards of professional knowledge and skills. Each of these types of society are likely to isssue one or more periodicals devoted to their particular subject field. Often the periodicals published by such societies will be amongst the most authoritative in that discipline. The associations will be anxious to maintain high standards and to disseminate information about their subject as widely as possible. Other publishers of periodicals are government departments and research centres, universities and other educational institutions, and commercial publishers. Industrial organisations often issue periodicals concerned with their trade or industry.

Number of periodicals published

How many periodicals are in existence? There is no certain answer to that question because of the many different types of publication which can be called "periodicals". Many institutions and societies issue periodicals for very limited circulation, for example, an educational institution, a museum, a library, a small group of people interested in a specific subject may issue a "bulletin" or "newsletter". Sometimes such publications are issued for only a very short time and then cease publication. It would be an impossible task to locate and list all such periodicals. One of the major annual bibliographies of periodicals, Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory (New York,Bowker) listed 65,000 periodicals in a recent edition. In U.K. the British Library Lending Division, at Boston Spa, in Yorkshire, one of the world's greatest collections of periodicals, listed about 70,000 in the 1986 edition of its annual Current Series Received.

Ulrich lists available periodicals under subjects, arranged in alphabetical order, with an index by periodical titles. This enables librarians to trace what periodicals are published on each subject. The publishers of Ulrich issue a quarterly publication bringing up to date news of title changes, titles ceasing publication, and new titles. An additional publication from the same source identifies serials and annuals which appear irregularly.

In Britain, the British Library Lending Division is the main centre for information on periodicals. In addition to Current Serials Received they also publish a quarterly Keyword Index of Serial Titles, indexing all titles held whether current or not. BLLD also issues Current British Journals (Irregular) listing British periodicals by subject.

Information retrieval from periodicals

Review publications

The output of primary information is so great that those who need this information find difficulty in keeping up with their own particular area of specialisation. To attempt to keep abreast of what is happening in subject areas related to their own direct field of interest is an almost impossible task.

One way in which information users can be helped to keep up to date in areas which affect their own is by means of special publications entitled "reviews". This term does not have quite the same meaning as in the phrase "book reviews". In the present context a review publiation is one in which a considerable number of papers which have appeared over a period on a specific topic are systematically surveyed by a writer or writers who will give a brief account of each and try to present the whole set of papers in a way which will illustrate the development of the subject.

Review publications often appear in annual volumes under titles such as "Reviews of -", "Progress in -" etc. Sometimes they come out more frequently, perhaps as quarterly periodicals with titles such as "Quarterly Reviews of-". Frequently review articles appear in periodicals which are also publishing primary information articles at the same time.

Guides to reference material (See Bibliography) will list some such publications. Guides to the literature of individual subjects, such as those referred to later, will also usually note reviewing publications in their own area.

Subject indexing and abstracting services

Searching periodicals for information can be very time consuming. Consider an enquirer entering a large reference library in search of information on some aspect of economics. He may discover that the library has many periodicals on that subject. The current issues will probably be on display and most will not contain any kind of index. The user may find that back issues have been bound into volumes, and if he is fortunate, he may find that each bound volume is provided with an index. Nevertheless, he will still have a considerable amount of searching to do in the indexes to the bound volumes of each periodical on economics.

To assist enquirers and save their time there exist a number of spcialised publications which index the contents of not just one but of many periodicals in one alphabetical index brought up to date at regular intervals. These publications are called subject indexes to periodicals and are themselves periodical publications. Each issue of a subject index to periodicals will consist of an alphabetical index to subjects which have been featured in various periodicals during the time since the last issue of the subject index appeared. It is usual for subject indexes to concentrate on a particular subject area which may be broad e.g. social sciences or narrow e.g. economics. Hundreds of periodical publications may be scanned for inclusion in the subject index. A list of all periodicals from which articles have been included will be published with the subject index. Thus by the use of these publications an enquirer can search just one index to obtain coverage of articles appearing in a large number of journals and it will no longer be necessary to search the individual indexes of each periodical.

Information given in the subject index will include author, title, and name of the periodical in which each article indexed appeared. Bibliographical details showing the date of publication, volume and part number, and pagination of each article indexed will also be given. Some publications go further and provide a summary or abstract of each article indexed. These abstracts, called "indicative" abstracts simply indicate the subject matter of articles and clarify information given in the title. The researcher is then able to decide whether or not he wishes to read the article. In other cases abstracts are "informative" that is, they attempt to give the substance of the original article. With such abstracts it may be possible for the researcher to obtain sufficient information from the abstract without having to go back to the original article. In practice, many abstracting publications offer a mixture of these different types of abstract.

A list of the major indexing and abstracting services will be found in Ulrich's International Periodicals Directory. Other listings of indexing and abstracting publications in specific subject fields are given in guides to reference works.

Citation indexing

When an author writes a book or periodical article he has to utilise the work of previous writers on the same subject. Even when presenting new information or reporting new discoveries an author must start by showing what the state of knowledge was before the new information became available. Every reference made to the work of past writers must be supported by sufficient bibliographical details of the previous work to enable a reader to check, if he so wishes, the source from which the reference was taken. This process is known as "citation" of previous writers and the bibliographical details, the citations, will be given either at the end of each page, as a footnote, or at the end of the periodical article, book chapter etc.

Most researchers will be familiar with the names of fellow-workers in the same field and prominent researchers of the past. Many scholars choose to study the development of a subject by reference to the way in which the work of past investigators has been modified or improved upon by other writers. So in place of a search for information by subject a search will be made for authors who have cited the papers of previous writers known to the searcher. To assist in a "citation search" of this kind a special type of index known as a "citation index" has been created, the best known being those published by the Institute for Scientific Information, Philadelphia, U.S.A.

In a citation index there will in fact be two lists of authors. The first gives the names of authors whose papers have been cited by later writers. The second lists the citing authors and the works in which those citations have appeared. By a search through the first list, the citation index, under the names of authors of important past papers the enquirer will find references to later writers who have made use of the previous work. Checking the second index, the source index, under the names of the citing authors the enquirer will find bibliographical details of the papers in which the earlier authors were cited.

Citation indexes are a useful additional way to search for information, supplementing the more traditional method of searching by subject in bibliographies and abstracting and indexing publications.

Union catalogues of periodicals

When an enquirer finds details of an article in which he is interested he will hope to find a copy of the periodical containing that paper in his nearest library. However, since so many periodicals are published it is impossible for any one library to contain them all. If the enquirer should dicover that the periodical he needs is not in any library near to him what can he do? Most libraries will operate an inter-library lending service by means of which librarians try to borrow copies of periodicals which they do not hold from libraries which have such journals in their collection.

In order to help librarians and their enquirers to find out which libraries hold certain periodicals a specialised form of bibliography is available called the union list of periodicals. These are lists of the periodicals held by all the libraries within one city, region, or country. Titles of the periodicals will be listed in one alphabetical sequence according to the first word of their titles and the names of the libraries holding copies of each title will be noted. It is usual to indicate how far back in time the holdings of each title in each library extend. For example, a library user may require an issue of a periodical published ten years ago. A union list of periodicals should show when each library started taking each periodical and if there are any gaps in its collection otherwise a librarian may apply to another library only to find that the particular issue required is not held. Many such lists are published all over the world.

Newspapers

Newspapers are a type of periodical with their own distinctive characteristics. Local and national newspapers are published in countries throughout the world. Because they deal in newly occurring events newspapers are primary information sources. For those interested in political, economic, and social affairs they offer vital information and back files of previous issue provide source material for the historian.

Most newspapers do not provide an index to their contents although some major American newspapers are indexed as is the Times of London the principal English newspaper. Sometimes newspaper items are listed in subject indexes to periodicals e.g. British Humanities Index published monthly by the Library Association in Britain. Another source of indexing of newspapers is provided by newspaper digests such as Keesing's Contemporary Archives a weekly summary and index to material published in newspapers and official publications published in Bristol, United Kingdom. Arranged on a country and subject basis it is possible to search its indexes for digest of current events worldwide.

Some newspapers maintain libraries which are essentially for the use of their own staff but which may be willing to assist other librarians. Partly because of the inadequacy of indexing arrangements for many newspapers many librarians keep their own files of press cuttings. Two or more copies of some newspapers will be acquired and items of interest cut out, filed, and indexed. This type of information file provides a useful current supplement to items appearing in other information sources.

Dissertations and theses

A dissertation or thesis is a paper presented to a university or similar institution of higher education indicating the results of research undertaken in fulfilment of requirements for a higher degree. In practice the two words are used as synonyms with Americans usually preferring the term "dissertation" and the British, "thesis". Ph.D. dissertations, in particular, are of great value as primary information sources. Dissertations or theses at Masters degree level may also contain some original material.

A research worker before commencing a new programme of research ought first to check to discover if the project on which he is about to start has already been undertaken wholly or partially by somebody else. Searching the subject matter of past dissertations is therefore an essential element in the preliminary literature survey which should precede any research project.

Not all dissertations are catalogued or indexed in a way which will permit of easy searching. Usually the library of the institution at which a thesis has been presented will catalogue the item but it might not be catalogued by subject but only by author, or author and title. There are, however, a number of ways in which researchers can search for information contained in dissertations. Firstly, many of the major abstracting services will include dissertations. Secondly, there are specialised abstracting and indexing services which cover dissertations and theses. In the United States, Uniteraity Microforms International is an important publisher including in its output Dissertation Abstracts International, a monthly publication cumulating into annual volumes, covering humanities and social sciences and physical sciences and engineering. In the United Kingdom Aslib (the Association for Information Management) publishes an annual Index to theses accepted for higher degrees in the Universitities of Great Britain and Ireland and by the Council for National Academic Awards. It should be noted that the British publication covers both Masters degrees and Ph.D. s while the American list includes only doctoral dissertations from most universities in the United States and Canada.

There are other guides to dissertations and theses which will not be listed here. For information about these the reader is referred to the guides to reference sources.

Report literature

The word report may well be familiar to some readers in connection with the annual reports issued by organisations of various kinds:- government departments, industrial firms, libraries etc. Such literature often contains information which may be new and unavailable anywhere else. Reports are also frequently commissioned by governments and other agencies from investigators who will enquire into various problems and propose solutions to them. Useful and previously unknown information may be derived from this type of report. In information science, however, when "report literature" is spoken of the reference is usually to a special type of information resource resulting from reports made by research workers to governments which are sponsoring the work on which such scientists are engaged. Particularly in the United States but also in the United Kingdom and other countries governments have spent large sums of money on research projects into such matters as space travel, atomic energy production and utilisation, and defence. Many thousands of reports have been issued recording the progress of such projects. In industrial organisations also many scientists are engaged on research and development projects and make reports to their employers on the success or failure of their efforts.

Much of what is written in such reports will be confidential and never made public at any time. This is particularly true of industrial research reports which, naturally, are confidential to the company funding the research. However, many thousands of government research reports from the United States and other countries are published and the information contained in them made available for the benefit of the community. Librarians and information scientists, in particular, must be aware of the existence of this body of literature and the indexes to it so that they may be able to advise of its existence to enquirers who may not be aware that such information is available.

The United States government has made enormous efforts to disseminate the information in its many thousands of publicly available research reports. Copies of the reports themselves are deposited in libraries throughout the world and detailed abstracts are published by U.S. National Technical Information Service, Springfield, Virginia in its Government Reports Announcements and Index, published fortnighly.

In the United Kingdom the British Library Lending Division, Boston Spa, Yorkshire, issues Reports, Translations and Theses a monthly list of material of this type taken by the BLLD. Report literature, like dissertations, will be abstracted in some of the major abstracting services.

Students should note that reports, like dissertations, can be extremely substantial documents containing far more information than can usually be presented in a periodical article. Authors can go into more detail and can provide tables, graphs and statistics impossible to condense into a periodical article. In searching for information for a client the information scientist should consider the possibility that material may be found in reports and remember that much more than science and technology is included in reports. For example, the field of eduation is widely covered in American research reports.

Because the United States distributes its report literature to libraries throughout the world in microform the possibilities of obtaining such material through interlibrary lending are good. For further information concerning the content and indexing of report literature students are referred to some of the books listed in the bibliography.

Patents

Individual and organisations who invent new products and processes are usually encouraged by governments because their work benefits society as a whole. It is usual for governments to offer inventors protection for their ideas so that they may gain the profits which their ingenuity merits. Most countries have developed systems which give inventors a licence to claim the sole rights to their inventions over a specified period of time. Gaining this licence is called "patenting" the invention and this is a legal process of a complicated nature which need not concern us.

What does conern information workers, however, is that part of the patenting process which involves the inventor making full disclosure of the details of his invention including diagrams (where necessary) showing how the invention operates. These details are published by government when the inventor is granted the rights to profit by his invention. The objective of publication is to make the information available to society. Other inventors can learn what has already been done and so avoid wasteful duplication. Additionally, other members of the public may find extremely useful information in the published patents, called "patent specifications", which may be unobtainable elsewhere. Technical details on the operation of equipment etc can benefit students and others. Enormous numbers of patent specifications are published throughout the world. Any researcher engaged on a project which involves science or technology of any kind would be well advised to make a search of patent literature before proceeding with his research.

Each government which issues patents will also provide a means for the distribution of published patent specifications to the community, probably through the deposit of copies of specifications in certain designated libraries and information centres. Methods for indexing, classifying, and sometimes for providing summaries or abstracts of patent specifications will be provided by each government. There is also a world patents authority.

As in the case of dissertations and reports patent specifications will be abstracted by the major abstracting and indexing services. There are also specialised patent abstracting services disseminating patents information on a commercial basis to individuals and organisations. Detailed accounts of patent searching are outside the scope of this introduction but further information can be obtained from some of the publications listed in the bibliography.

Standards specifications

Of particular importance to information workers in industry and commerce are the information sources known as standards specifications. A specification can simply be described as a statement of requirements. These requirements may relate to the quality and quantity of materials to be used in the manufacture of an article and to the dimensions, qualities, and pattern of the finished product. Standards specifications are detailed requirements for a product, process, or method of operation which have been given the authority of a reputable organisation such as a government department, society or association which recommends that the specifications given should always be followed.

Most countries will have an official standardising organisation which will issue or validate standards in that country. There is also an international standards organisation striving to achieve harmonisation of standards throughout the world. Standardisation is vital to industry and commerce. It is essential that distributors and consumers can rely on each individual item of a product to be of the same quality as all the others. When machinery requires replacement parts it is crucial the new parts are of standardised dimensions with the parts they are to replace. Standardisation is important not only in the manufacture of goods but in processes and operations. It is imperative that codes of practice be drawn up and adhered to for operations such as building, electrical wiring etc. The necessity of standardisation extends to many fields including librarianship and documentation. So we have standards for the citation of periodical titles and for the presentation of bibliographical information, for example, so that information workers all over the world can have confidence that their colleagues follow the same practices as themselves. An excellent example is the Universal Decimal Classification which has been adopted as a British standard for the classification of books and other documents in scientific and technical libraries.

Librarians and information workers should be aware of the vital role played by standards in many fields and know that the various standardisation organisations issue bibliographies and guides to the standards which they have issued and periodicals to keep users informed of new standards and amendments as these are published. It is beyond the scope of this paper to detail the bibliography of standards but further information will be found in the books listed in the bibliography.

Trade literature

Many manufacturers publish information about their products. Much of this may simply be advertising material but a considerable amount contains technical data which it might not be possible to obtain elsewhere. Publications can range from small pamphlets to substantial catalogues of manufacturer's entire range of products. This material can be difficult to trace because it is frequently revised and seldom listed in bibliographies. To enable their readers to keep up to date with such publications some of the publishers of trade periodicals operate a service by which any advertiser featured in the periodical will supply trade literature to the editor of the periodical. Readers can then apply to just one address, that of the periodical, to receive trade literature from many different suppliers. Another method used to keep users abreast of trade literature is the use of one of the specialist services that exist in some countries to supply trade literature. The supplier of this type of service charges a fee to manufacturers to distribute their literature and a fee to users to have literature supplied and regularly updated covering the trade literature of a particular industry. This type of service has proved to be very popular with both manufacturers and potential purchasers.

Libraries and information centres often try to acquire and file this information for users. Indexing is time consuming because so much new material is issued and the files should be regularly "weeded" because this type of publication is so quickly outdated. It is, nevertheless, an important information source.

Conference proceedings

One method by which a research worker may bring new information to the attention of fellow scholars is by the presentation of a paper at a meeting or conference. He is then able to offer his colleagues the most up to date account possible of the progress of his research. The value of papers presented at conferences is widely recognised and many research workers will regard attendance at all appropriate meetings as a significant method of acquiring current information.

Of first importance is to find out what conferences are to be held within the near future and there are publications issued specifically to advise of forthcoming meetings. For example, Aslib, The Association for Information Management, in the U.K.

publishes Forthcoming International Scientific and Technical Conferences (quarterly) which includes meetings in the social sciences, medicine, and librarianship in addition to science and technology. There is no space here to list all such publications but more are listed in some of the books in the bibliography.

In some cases it is possible for an enthusiastic researcher to obtain either from the organisers of a meeting or from individuals due to present papers a "preprint" of the papers to be given. In most cases, it will be necessary to await the conference before seeing or hearing the presentations. For those unable to attend a conference obtaining the papers presented would be a useful substitute. Unfortunately, the proceedings of many conferences are never published mainly for financial reasons. Sometimes, proceedings are published but many months or even years after the event. It is important to remember that conference proceedings are not a form of recorded information because those conference papers which are published may be issued in a variety of different forms. Some may be published in a periodical issued by the organisation responsible for the conference. Others may be presented in the form of a book. For certain conferences sponsored by governments the form of issue may be in a report series. To help enquirers obtain information concerning the publication of papers presented at meetings there are a number of specialised publications. One of the best known is the Index to Conference Proceedings Received published by the British Library Lending Division. This library has specialised in the listing of conference proceedings. Other listings are noted in some of the works mentioned in the bibliography.

"Grey Literature"

Students may come across the term "grey literature" in texts on information science. The term is a relatively modern one used to describe information sources which are "semi-published". That is to say that only a limited number of copies of the document are likely to be made and that it is not possible to buy the work at a bookshop in the same way that a book or periodical may be purchased or ordered if not in stock.

Dissertations are good examples. Only a few copies may be made: one will go to the university library at which the dissertation was presented. This may be the only copy to which other researchers may have limited access although as explained earlier attempts are being made to list dissertations and have them made more readily accessible. Many reports will be available only for limited circulation. Papers presented at conferences may never be published but limited numbers of copies of papers presented may be in circulation. The very fact that such material is not issued in quantity may lead to its exclusion from printed bibliographies and indexes. Thus finding out about the existence of such material may be difficult and obtaining a copy of any such document may be virtually impossible. Fortunately the problem has been recognised and international efforts are being made to identify, index, and locate such information sources. For students interested to find out more about this topic a search through subject indexes and abstracts in librarianship/information science will produce references to many papers.

Official publications

Although government and other official publications cannot be considered a " form" of publication because they appear in many forms:- books, pamphlets, periodicals etc they are so numerous and important that they deserve a section in their own right. The U.S.A. Government Printing Office, for instance, claims to be the largest publisher in the world and when we consider that all governments publish laws, regulations, directives, reports etc ranging from one page items to multi-volumed works it is easy to understand why government documents represent such a large part of publications output of the world.

The extent of government publishing is too wide to enter into in detail in this paper. It is essential, however, for every information worker to realise that information issuing from government is of concern to every citizen and that much of it can be described as primary information because it will not have appeared in any other form previously. For example, all governments will issue laws and regulations which all citizens must obey. In some countries the debates and discussions which accompany the passing of such legislation through the country's legislature will also be published and can be of immense assistance to the research worker and student in the fields of politics and social history. Governments will usually require departments and agencies to publish annual reports of their work and sometimes to meet special needs governments will call on individuals or groups nominated by government to consider and report on specific problems facing the nation. All such reports which can cover any aspect of national life, can be of vital assistance to the researcher.

Government publishing is far wider than this, however. In most countries each department or agency of the government is likely to publish literature of various kinds relating to the work of that department or agency. This literature might consist of periodical publications, pamphlet material ranging from a few pages to a substantial booklet, special reports relating to the subject covered by the department, and even books and series of books considered too important or specialised to be published by commercial publishers.

Listing the enormous output of government is a formidable task in most countries. In some cases, as for example in the United Kingdom and the United States, the government departments entrusted with the task of publishing government documents will also publish detailed current and retrospective bibliographies showing both the present and the past output of such material. Where a country has a national bibiography, as in Botswana, for example, it will be an objective of the publishers of that bibliography to try to include as many government publications in their listing as can possibly be achieved. Governments and their departments produce so much documentation, however, that in every country it is likely that some items will be omitted either from the government's own listings or the national bibliography. Some government documentation is upriced and of limited interest and for that reason departments may fail to have the material listed. In Britain, for example, so much material put out from official or semi-official sources was not listed in bibliographies that an enterprising publisher a few years ago began to publish a listing of official publications not listed by Her Majesty's Stationery Office, the British Government's official publisher and bibliographer!

In addtion to national official publications librarians and information workers must remember that some nations are divided into states such as those of the United States of America. Each state will also have its government and government department publications. There is also in many countries a considerable amount of publication at the level of local government. Much of this material may not be listed in any bibliography. Librarians and information workers must then rely on directories and guides which list state, regional and local governments and their departments. Enquirers can be given addresses to contact for further information.

On the international scene since the end of the Second World War there has been a considerable growth of international organisations. Many of these, for example the United Nations and its agencies, the European Communities and many others have produced a large amount of documentation. In many cases there exists a systematic and detailed series of bibliographical publications designed to assist enquirers to locate published information. There is no space in the present paper in which to give more details of such bibliographical works but further information will be found in the publications listed in the bibliography.

Books

Although alternative media of communication such as television, radio, and the computer are of outstanding importance in modern society the book has retained its role as one of the essential communication media because of its special advantages. It is portable and needs no equipment to use. Readers have the facility of studying books at their own pace referring back as often as many be required to material not fully understood or remembered. To the librarian books remain the heart of his collection of information containing materials. The book trade worldwide continues to expand despite frequent forecasts that the book is dying.

In the twentieth century books are usually not used as means for the primary communication of information as they were in past ages. As explained above researchers are likely to communicate news of the progress of their work first in periodical articles, dissertations, or research reports. There will be certain fields in which newly published books may contain entirely new information, for example, in an autobiography, or in the presentation of some new philosophical or theological opinion. Most works of non-fiction, however, will be compiled by their authors from information which has already been published in periodicals, government publications, dissertations, reports etc or gleaned by research in collections of archives and manuscripts. It must be pointed out again that although books of this type will be deemed as "secondary" in terms of information science that does not imply that such works are inferior. Indeed, the writing of well-written summaries of already existing knowledge can be of inestimable benefit to the student, the educated general reader, and even to a researcher for information outside his own specialist field. Although the information in a secondary publication already is in existence in some other form it may be scattered over so many different information sources as to make it almost impossible for the average person to have access to it. Thus, the writers of monographs, textbooks and similar works provide a vital service to the community.

Although the word monograph is often misused in the modern book world it should refer to a book written on a specific and clearly defined topic which attempts to bring together all that the writer has been able to trace on that subject in periodical articles, dissertations, reports and other primary sources. Good examples are the series of monographs each devoted to an individual chemical published by the American Chemical Society. A textbook is usually written with the interests of the student in mind and the book should indicate in its introductory matter the level of student for whom the text is written.

Librarians and information workers ought to become familiar with books! That is obviously true but a very difficult task when one considers the vast numbers of books available. Even when an information worker is specialising in one particular subject keeping informed of all the books of interest is likely to be difficult. How can we keep abreast of what is available? Clearly, we will not be able to remember a whole array of titles - what we must aim for is an understanding of the types of books which are published, the organisations which publish them, and the bibliographies and guides which exist to help librarians and other interested in books locate information about their authors, titles, subjects, and publishers.

Which types of organisation publish books? The first type are the commercial publishers, those firms which are in the business of publishing books for profit. There are many hundreds of these firms worldwide.

Other types of organisation which publish books sometimes are universities and other educational institutions, societies and associations, governments and international agencies. Some publishers cover all subjects while others concentrate on specific themes. If we can find out more about individual publishers and their specialisations then we can obtain from those in which we are interested the booklists which publishers produce to notify potential readers about their publications.

Fortunately, there are a number of guides and directories to the publishers of various countries which can assist us in tracing information about the activities of the various publishing houses. In the U.K. there is, for example, Cassell's and Publishers' Association Directory of Publishing an annual guide to publishers' addresses and subject interests. The U.S.A. has a number of useful directories. The Publishers' Trade List Annual, issued by Bowker, an American publisher producing many bibliographies and books useful to librarians, lists under each publisher included books currently available. A subject index helps in the location of publishers' sepecialisations. Another useful American directory is Linda Hubbard's Publishers' Directory (Gale,1983) which lists a great many specialist U.S. publishers and their subject interests. For Africa, there is the African Book World and Press: a Directory (London, Hans Zell, 2nd. edition, 1980).

Librarians ought to read the periodical publications relating to the book trade. In the U.K., for example, the weekly periodical, The Bookseller, gives news of the book trade and is particularly helpful because of the amount of information about new and forthcoming books. A similar function is served by the American Publishers Weekly. Book reviewing publications are periodicals which librarians should scan regularly to assimilate information about new books. British Book News, and Times Literary Supplement are examples.

No matter how much a librarian reads and remembers new books it will still be necessary for him to have more systematic assistance in tracing information about books in which his users might be interested. Any librarian or information scientist may be asked to supply a book by a specific author, or of specified title, or on a particular subject. To assist librarians trace books by author, title and subject various types of bibliography are produced. Some of these are discussed below.

Bibliography

National bibliographies

As there is no complete list of books published throughout the world the next best possibility is for each nation to publish a full list of all the books published within that country. Libraries could then hold such bibliographies from all over the world thus giving their users access to information about books published in every country.

Unfortunately, however, not every country does publish a national bibliography although for many years UNESCO, the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation, which has as one of its main programmes the development of library, archival, bibliographical and information services throughout the world, has made strenuous efforts to persuade each nation to do so. These efforts have led to a gradual improvement in bibliographical services worldwide which is recorded in UNESCO's serial publication Bibliographical services throughout the world. Very many countries do now publish a national bibliography although the frequency of such publication and the comprehensiveness of coverage can vary widely from country to country.

In principle, a national bibliography should list every publication issued in a country. This includes books and pamphlets, government documents, periodicals and newspapers etc. Some national bibliographies include publications about the nation published elsewhere in the world. A fully comprehensive national bibliography would list articles appearing in periodicals and material such as dissertations and technical reports which are not really "published" in the usual sense of that word. Also information in the modern world includes audio visual material such as videorecordings, films, slides, filmstrips, audio tapes and cassettes. For many nations such a comprehensive bibliography is still only a far-off ideal. It is difficult to ensure that all books published are listed as many organisations which are not commercial publishers issue an occasional book or pamphlet. Even government departments do not always make their publications available to the editors of the national bibliography.

In many countries, legislation requires publishers to deposit at least one copy of each publication with the national library or at some other centre or centres. This legal requirement helps to ensure that the national library of a country collects all material published in that nation. The law of "legal deposit" should also make it possible for the national bibliography to record all books published. In practice, however, it is very difficult to enforce compliance with the law and so many items go uncollected and unrecorded.

An excellent example of a national bibliography is the British National Bibliography a weekly listing of books published in Britain arranged in subject order based upon the Dewey Decimal Classification, and published by the British Library.

Book trade bibliography

In addition to (and sometimes in place of) a national bibliography. Many nations with a well-developed book trade have bibliographies provided by and for the trade. The British publishers of the Bookseller, J. Whitaker and Sons Ltd., list new books weekly in that periodical, have a monthly publication Books of the Month and Books to Come and monthly and annual listings by author, title, and subject, grouping subjects under approximately 50 headings. British Books in Print is an annual publication by Whitaker listing by author, title, and subject all books currently available (it is also available in microform). The subject approach is provided by indexing keywords in book titles so a book on economics will only be indexed under economics if that word actually appears in the title. This means that subject indexing in this publication is limited.

The United States has a similar type of provision. Books are listed weekly by Bowker the publishers of Publishers Weekly who also publish, amongst many bibliographies, American Book Publishing Record, a monthly classified by the Dewey Decimal

Classification and listing books by subject. This is cumulated into an annual volume. Subject, author and title guides to forthcoming books are also published by Bowker who issue annually Books in Print in separate sections for authors, titles, and subjects. In this publication there is very detailed subject indexing.

Hans Zell publishes African Books in Print periodically to provide a similar type of service for African publications. This can be supplemented by Cumulative Book Index, subtitled "A world list of books in the English language", published quarterly by H.W. Wilson, another major American publisher of bibliographical works. This work cumulates into annual volumes and although it is not comprehensive it is a very useful bibliography because it arranges in one alphabetical sequence of author, title, and subject books in English published in many parts of the world.

National library catalogues

To search for information about books published many years ago it is possible to go back through the indexes of the major bibliographies listed above some of which have been issued for very many years. Another method is to search the published catalogues of some of the world's great libraries. For the United Kingdom, the catalogue of the British Library offers listings of the books acquired by that great library over the centuries since its foundation. Access is mainly by author but a subject search is also possible through the subject index volumes which have been published since 1881 . Similarly, for the United States the National Union Catalog which lists the holdings of the Library of Congress and of other major American libraries offers a similar wealth of material. Author listings are the primary means of entering items in this catalogue also but subject access is possible through the publication entitles Library of Congress: Books: Subjects which has been published since the 1950s.

These large catalogues will not be held by all libraries. For those that do have them library users can trace details about thousands of books many of which would be obtainable on inter library lending systems. Using these major catalogues needs a little patience and some guidance. Further details about these bibliographies and their use can be obtained from the books mentioned in the bibliography.

Subject bibliography

In addition to the general bibliographies and catalogues described above specialised bibliographies exist in most subject fields. One important development in bibliography in recent years has been the publication of photographic reproductions of the catalogues of great subject libraries in various parts of the world. Publication of these specialised and comprehensive bibliographies has been on such a scale that there now exist guides to such publications, for example, Published library catalogues, edited by Robert Collison (Mansell, 1974).

Not only do librarians and information scientists have available the catalogues of great specialist libraries but there are also published on a continuing basis major bibliographies in many subject fields. These listings often include in addition to books details of periodical articles, dissertations, and other information on their subject field. Subject bibliographies of this type will be listed in the guides to reference material used by reference librarians, Guide to reference material, edited by A. J. Walford, (Library Association, 1980-1986) and Guide to reference books, edited by E.P. Sheehy (Chicago, American Library Association, 10th edition, 1986).

For many subjects there now exist "guides to the literature" which describe the main bibliographies, abstracting and indexing services, periodicals, major reference works, outstanding publishers series and individual titles etc. Certain publishers specialise in this type of bibliographical material, in Britain, for example, Butterworths and the Library Association: in the United States the Gale Research Company, Scarecrow Press and others. Walford and Sheehy, mentioned in the previous paragraph, will list many such guides under the appropriate subject heading.

Students should remember also that the abstracting services and subject indexes to periodical literature, mentioned above, are, in fact, bibliographies of their own subject field. Some are restricted to the periodical articles appearing in their subject while others cover every type of publication.

Finally, because subject bibliographies are so numerous, with new publications constantly appearing, there exist some bibliographies of bibliographies. The best known of these in the World Bibilography of Bibliographies, edited by Theodore Besterman (Rowman and Littlefield, 5 vols , 1965) and supplements which lists separately published bibliographies on all subjects. Then there is Bibliographic Index published twice yearly by the American H.W. Wilson Company. This publication lists bibliographies appearing as separate publications or appended to books and periodical articles if at least 50 items are listed.

The fact that Bibliographic Index lists bibliographies which appear at the end of books and periodical articles serves as a reminder to students that when searching for information a useful strategy is to try to trace a recent monograph or substantial periodical article on the subject. A responsible author will have conducted a systematic literature review before writing his own work and should provide a listing of the sources he has consulted and cited.

Pamphlets

A pamphlet can be defined as a publication of less than fifty pages, usually in a soft cover rather than a hard cover, and with its pages stapled or glued together rather than sewn as in the case of many books. Many thousands of pamphlets are published each year by a great variety of organisations- a far greater range of organisations than the commercial publishers of books. Nobody knows just how many pamphlets are issued annually because so many never find their way into bibliographies or other listings of new publications. Any type of organisation or institution may occasionally or regularly issue pamphlets:- universities and other educational institutions, government departments and agencies, associations and societies, industrial organisations, libraries, museums, art galleries, local authorities, tourist boards, consulates and embassies and others. Much of the information in pamphlets is primary information unobtainable elsewhere.

A feature of many pamphlets is that they are free. They may be issued for advertising or promotional purposes but they may yet contain vital information which may not be obtainable from any other source. Some pamphlets may be quite substantial, priced, and published in pamphlet form because the amount of material is insufficient to warrant the publication of a book and yet perhaps too detailed for presentation as a periodical article. Any subject can be included in pamphlet literature so the research worker who is seeking all the information he can trace on his subject must be made aware of the potential of this type of material.

As stated above one of the problems faced by information workers in connection with pamphlets is that so many are never listed in bibliographies or similar lists of new publications. How then can the librarian or his enquirer discover what is available? There is no certain way to ensure that the information seeker can find out about the existence of every relevant pamphlet but there are certain procedures which can be followed.

First all appropriate bibliographies, abstracting and indexing publications should be checked. Although much pamphlet material is omitted a great deal will be covered by the better information sources. Secondly both librarian and enquirer should consider very carefully which types of organisation may issue pamphlet publications on the subject searched for. Fortunately excellent directories and guides to organisations of all types are now published. Some of these are mentioned in this paper in the section on yearbooks and directories. Many of the better directories and guides indicate examples of the types of publication issued by each organisation listed. The information worker will, in any case, wish to draw his users attention to organisations in his subject field as potential sources of information. In particular, the libraries and information departments of such institutions should be able to advise on both the information and literature available in their subject field. Libraries of this type may well issue bibliographies and accessions lists which may include pamphlet material of the type required. Thirdly, the periodical literature of the subject area should be carefully scanned. Most periodicals contain not only book reviews but lists of new publications received which may include pamphlet material.

Microforms

Microforms are photographically reduced copies of books and other documents. There are two major types of microforms currently used microfilm i.e. reels of film containing the reduced size copies, and microfiche which is sheet microfilm. Documents reduced many times in size can be easily stored in microform; original copies can be preserved from damage through being made available in microform; enormous amounts of space can be saved in libraries; and when it is necessary to send a document from one library to another it is cheaper and more convenient to send a microform copy. Indeed, rather than lend materials, microform copies can be presented or sold to other libraries or individuals.

Libraries and information scientists must be aware that microforms are used for the presentation of some information sources. For example, American government reports are issued in microform. Dissertations and theses which are made availabe for individual or library purchase are often available only in microform. Microform is increasingly being used by specialist publishers to make more widely available material which was previously only accessible with great difficulty. Out of print books and periodicals can be made accessible again through microform publication. Rare books and archival material can be published in microform so that libraries all over the world may have access to them.

Information workers should familiariese themselves with the growing output of microform publishers and be aware of the bibliographies of microfomrms which are published. The main one is Guide to microforms in print (Meckler Books) and its campanion volumes Subject guide to microforms in print. Both are published annually.

Audio visual materials

Because of the effectiveness of the use of pictorial images in the transmission of information, particularly when those pictures move and are accompanied by sound, there has been a tremendous increase over recent years in the presentation of information by audio visual methods. As explained earlier the librarian/information scientists is essentially interested in recorded information so is particularly concerned with audio visual media which can be collected in the library/information centre.

Many television and radio broadcasting stations make recordings of their broadcasts. Many of these recordings will not be available for other libraries to collect although librarians/information scientists need to be aware of the potential information value of such collections held in the libraries of TV and radio companies. This material is a major source of contemporary primary information to the historian and social scientist.

Films, video recordings, slides, tape-slide presentations, filmstrips etc are made in considerable quantities and many of these are available to libraries/information centres. Some of these productions are for entertainment only but a substantial number are of an educational nature. These may be very useful in certain organisations and librarians/information scientists should become familiar with the bibliographies which are published to help enquirers find material on various subjects. There are a number of outstanding bibliographies published in some countries on a national basis, and other lists issued by organisations and societies connected with film and video manufacture and distribution. Full details on some of these bibliographies can be found in the guides to reference books.
Audio tapes and cassettes are also widely available and quite well covered bibliographically although much of this material is

also either for entertainment or to accompany educational programmes.

Photographs, paintings, prints, drawings, plans, and charts are frequently required in many contexts in education, cultural activities, for industrial and commercial purposes etc. There are specialist libraries and collections of this type of material and there have been a number of directories issued to assist the researcher looking for pictorial information.

Archives and manuscripts

Archives can be defined as the official records of the activities of an organisation. Included in these records will be the minutes of meetings held by various committees, boards, councils etc connected with the organisation. Archival materials will also include official constitutions, laws, rules and regulations, reports of various kinds, membership records, and correspondence. The contents of an archival collection may be in manuscript, typewritten, or printed form. By their very nature archives are confidential to the organisation which produced them. To the historian and other researchers this material may be the only information source of value to their work.

Because of the nature of archives they are not records which libraries can usually collect. Sometimes the owners of a set of archival materials may decide to donate the collection to a library to assist researchers. Many countries will set up a national archives collection or collections to acquire and preserve the archives of a nation. In government archives, the records of departments, agencies, and other institutions important to national life will be preserved, and, so far as is possible without breach of confidentiality, made available for research workers. Organisations will be encouraged to deposit archival materials in such collections.

Manuscripts are handwritten records of any kind. It is usual, to-day, to include typewritten records in this category. Diaries, letters, journals are some of the materials which make up a collection of manuscripts. Sometimes material may be held which will later have been issued in printed form e.g. a manuscript may the authors first draft of a book later published. Again, by its very nature this type of material, although invaluable to the researcher, cannot be collected by libraries as part of their normal acquisition process. Sometimes, as with archives, collections of manuscripts will be deposited with libraries for the benefit of researchers. Access to the diaries, letters etc. of famous (and less well known) people is obviously of major importance to the historian or social historian.

Archives and manuscripts are usually linked together because the same type of specialised institutions are likely to collect them. Librarians/information scientists should be aware of these information sources and know of the guides and directories which are sometimes available to assist the researcher to find the location of such collections.

It is also worth noting that it is the practice of archivists to file archives under the names of the organisations which donated them to the collection. Each file is maintained as received. It is not the practice to arrange archives by subject as books are arranged in a library. Archivists will, however, provide catalogues and lists of material held to assist researchers find the information they require.

SECTION 3 INDEXING AND DISSEMINATION OF INFORMATION

Information sources collected by a library or information centre are acquired so that information seekers will be able to find the data they require. In order for information to be found, or "retrieved", as librarians and information scientists say, catalogues and indexes will be provided to facilitate this.

Module 4 of this programme deals with the methods used by librarians to classify and catalogue the material in their libraries. You will learn that books are arranged in the library according to their subject matter with books on the same subject filed together and next to works on related topics. Librarians also compile catalogues to show what material is held by the library. It is usual to make entries under authors and under subjects, also under title for works whose authorship is unknown or when the title is thought unusual or distinctive enough for users to request the work by title rather than author or subject.

As explained earlier, in large generalist libraries, it is not usually possible for librarians to classify or catalogue the individual papers in periodicals or the separate chapters in a book. In the spcialised library/information centre, however, such detailed indexing is often undertaken. This poses problems for indexers.

The schemes adopted by librarians for classifying and cataloguing the items in their collections have been found unsuitable for the in-depth indexing of the complex subjects in periodical articles. Published schemes for the classification and subject cataloguing of library materials are usually described as "pre-coordinated indexing systems". This means that the libararian is provided with a system of recommended subject headings, either numerical or alphabetical. He then assigns to each document the heading which he decides most appropriately decides its subject content. The complexity of the subjects in periodical articles is so great that no system of recommended headings could possibly anticipate all indexing needs. Documentalists have devised alternative indexing systems. These are based on the identification of all the specific ideas or concepts found in each periodical article and indexing each separately. When the documentalist comes to search for information on a complex subject he consults his information files and searches for documents containing information on each aspect of the complex topic he is concerned with. When he identifies documents which contain each of the concepts for which he is searching, linked in the manner which he requires, he will have found information sources matching his needs. Systems of indexing based on the identification of individual concepts in papers which will be linked together by searchers at the retrieval stage are designated "post coordinate indexing systems".

Some of the published classification and indexing schemes although essentially pre-coordinated systems have been given a degree of flexibility which has allowed them to be used with some success for indexing periodical articles. The Universal Decimal Classification, for example, is an adaptation of the Dewey Decimal Classification which was especially devised by documentalists to allow for a greater capacity for "number building" (please refer to Module 4 for an explanation of number building) which would enable librarians to use it for the classiciation of scientific and technical papers. This scheme, which is continuously revised to meet the needs of various subject specialists, is under the sponsorship of FTD, the International Federation for Documentation, and is widely used in many libraries and information centres throughout the world, particularly for the classification and indexing of scientific and technical documents.

Of indexing schemes the simplest at first glance, is what is called "free language indexing". This means that the indexer analyses each document eg. periodical article, technical report, dissertation etc, by assigning to it as many indexing terms as he thinks appropriate. The terms which he uses will be those which he thinks best illustrate the subjects in the document. The problem with this method is that the English language contains so many synonyms and related terms. An article dealing with people's homes may be indexed under the words "homes", "houses", "dwellings", "habitations" etc. Without control what one indexer uses as indexing terms may be totally different to the terms used by another. The person who seeks for specific information may use yet another set of words for searching in the indexes.

Most organisations have found that some measure of control of terms used in indexing is necessary. So in many documentation centres indexers will follow a listing of preferred terms which should be used to specify individual concepts. To show how concepts are related and to distinguish between general headings and those which are subordinate some documentation centres use what is called a "thesaurus" of indexing headings. A thesaurus is a systematically designed list of indexing terms. It will show preferred terms which should be used and synonyms which are not to be used. Where a word is not to be used the indexer will find a reference to the term which is recommended for use. When an indexer proposes to use a general heading the thesaurus will show whether that is permitted or whether the indexer should be directed to use a more specific heading. A thesaurus is, in fact, a classification of headings to be used by indexers and its correct use should ensure uniformity in indexing. The searcher will also be directed to use the thesaurus to make certain he uses the appropriate terms in this search for information from the file.

Dissemination of information

All libraries and information services exist to make the information which has been collected and stored available to those entitled to make use of the collection. The process of distribution from the library or information centre of some of the store of knowledge they contain is known as the dissemination of information.

First step in this process is ensuring that the libary/information centre is kept open a sufficient number of hours in the week to enable all those authorised to use it to gain access to its resources. Allowing the loan of material is a further stage in information dissemination. Provision of catalogues and indexes facilitates access to information by users.

Librarians/information scientists also offer more direct assistance to promote the flow of information to their users. One such service is the assistance given by librarians/information scientists to users searching for information. Methods and resources used in the provision of such reference and information services are described later.

To enable patrons to make the best use of libary/information services most organisations will issue some publications. These are likely to include the following:-

1. Introduction to the use of the library and its resources (This purpose can also be achieved by talks, library tours, tape-slide, film, and video presentations)
2. Accessions lists i.e. notification of new materials added to the collection.
3. Bibliographies on various topics compiled either on user request or in anticicipation of user need.
4. Newsletters and similar publications drawing attention to the library and its activities.

In the special library/information centre a more intensive form of dissemination of information can usually be practised due to the fact that in such institutions information service may be concentrated on a small number of personnel unlike in the university or public library. Systematic efforts to advise users of new publications and new development in their fields of interest are more likely to be made in this type of information service. These activities are known as "current awareness services". These can take the form of additional publications to those listed above:-

1. Bulletins drawing attention to new periodical articles appearing in journals taken by the library/information centre. Although university and public libraries can offer such a publication it is much more likely to be encounted in the special library/information centre.

2. Abstracting bulletins which not only list authors and titles of new periodical articles but give summaries of their contents.

Another current awareness service often practised in the special library/information service is the circulation of new issues of periodicals to a specified number of persons thought to be likely to find articles of interest in the journals. This system has some public relations value for the library/information centre in that it draws attention to library services perhaps from those who do not otherwise use it. There are also disadvantages due to the possible loss of or damage to journals and the delay in passing of periodicals from one person to another. The advantages of circulation of periodicals can be retained and the disadvantages eliminated by the practice of distributing not the journals but photocopies of their contents pages to those likely to be interested. All users can receive copies of title pages simultaneously while the journals remain in the library. Copies of articles wanted can then be made by the information staff on request.

The "personal touch" is more likely to be observed in the special library/information centre than in other types of library. Whereas the publications issued by a university or public library are likely to be made available to all users, or at least to those who show interest in the publications, in a special library/information centre service is likely to be offered to users on an individual basis rather than to the entire user group. There may, in practice, be both group and individual service. When information service is offered to specified individuals rather than to the entire group the term "Selective

Dissemination of Information (SDI)" is normally used. Implicit also in this term is the concept of providing information in anticipation of users' known needs rather than responding to specific requests for information.

Selective Dissemination of Information is commonly associated with computerised information services in which the computer is "fed" with details relating to the specific research interests of an individual researcher. A "profile" or picture of the individual user's interests is thus created enabling the computer to match the "terms" or "descriptors" which identify the individual user's interests with the terms and descriptors attached to the documents by indexers who input information into the memory of the computer. So the computer is periodically able to match the user profile to a set of newly added documents which are dealing with subjects concerning the subject interests of that particular user.

Even libraries lacking access to computer facilities can, however, adopt an SDI system of a more simple kind. Individual librarians and information scientists will get to know each of the users of their information service. They will maintain a record either in their memories or in some written file and endeavour to bear in mind the needs of individual users when scanning new material added to the collection. Whenever an item appears which seems to the information scientist appropriate to the known interests of one of his users several possible methods of dissemination of the information are available:-

1. The user can be advised of the arrival of the information by telephone, memo, or personal visit by the information workers.
2. A copy of the relevant item can be made and passed to the user.
3. The actual document can be sent to the user.

The assistance of the user is essential if information scientists are to maintain up to date and appropriate profiles. Careful specification of the exact nature of the user's interests, related terms, type of information not required, and notification of any change of interests are necessary for the information service to disseminate information to match the user's needs. By means of interviews, questionnaires, attendance at departmental and other meetings the information scientist will do his or her best to ensure that the profile of each user is kept accurate and current.

Thus the work of information scientists in a specialsied libary/information centre can now be listed more fully. Documents are received by the centre on a daily, weekly, monthly, quarterly and annual basis. They will be carefully examined by specialist staff with two objectives:-

1. The in-depth indexing of the information contained in the documents to facilitate later retrieval by the information staff or users of the service.

2. The identification of material in such documents considered to be of interest to the community served either on an individual or a group basis. If the group as a whole is likely to be interested in certain items these will probably be listed in accessions lists or bulletin for general distribution.

   Where an individual is identified as a potential recipient for a specific piece of information that person will be individually alerted to the new information by one of the methods described above.

3. The information specialists will be ready at the request of any user to conduct detailed information searches using the resources of the collection and, if necessary, contacting other information services for assistance in locating the information desired.

4. The information specialists will utilise whatever other methods are considered desirable to promote the use of the collection and draw attention to information resources it contains. This may be achieved by the compilation and distribution of some or all of the publications listed above or by other promotional activities such as talks, tours, preparation and presentation of audio visual programmes.

5. To ensure that the information specialists are kept aware of activities and interests within the organisation which they serve information staff will attend meetings, read all relevant documentation, externally and internally produced, and maintain good communications with users of the information service.

6. Information specialists will keep abreast of professional developments by attendance at meetings, conferences, courses and keeping in contact with professional colleagues.

7. Information staff may be called upon to advise individual users in matters concerned with the indexing of their personal information files and the editing and bibliographical citation required in the presentation of information.

8. Information staff may be called upon to assist in the translation of articles from foreign languages. Many specialised libraries/ information centres employ linguists. Where necessary lists of translators will be maintained and sometimes the help of professional institutions or major libraries sought in the procuring of translations.

SECTION 4 REFERENCE BOOKS AND REFERENCE LIBRARY WORK

Reference material

Mention has been made earlier of the fact that encyclopaedias are good examples of secondary sources of information. In an encyclopaedia we find the world's current knowledge on all subjects summarised. Facts are made accessible to us usually by the arrangement of subjects alphabetically throughout the volume or volumes of the encyclopaedia. For easier reference to specific topics mentioned in the text an alphabetical index of topics is normally also provided.

Every library, and many homes, will possess an encyclopaedia as an important key to finding facts quickly. There are many multi-volumed sets of encyclopaedias of international reputation - for example, Encyclopaedia Britannica and Encyclopedia Americana. A good reference library will hold several different sets of encyclopaedias because although all will cover the same material there are differences in the detail of content and in the methods of presentation which make it advisable for librarians to purchase more than one encyclopaedia.

Because the editors of encyclopaedias attempt to cover all subjects a good collection of such works will assist any library to supplement weaknesses in its core collections. The articles on various subjects in the principal encyclopaedias will often be quite substantial and capable of meeting the information needs of many users. Additionally, a good encyclopaedia will feature bibliographies to direct the reader to further sources of information on the subject in which he is interested.

There are also many encyclopaedias in one volume. These are beneficial for basic fact finding although they obviously will not be able to give detailed information. It is this type of encyclopaedia that is most likely to be found in the home library. Some one volume encyclopaedias and a number of encyclopaedias intended for children are arranged in such a way as to be read through systematically subject by subject. An alphabetically arranged index will provide guidance as to the location of specific items of information.

Information searchers should remember that, in addition to the general encyclopaedias described above there are specialised encyclopaedias published covering almost every subject. Many of these are also multi-volumed works and some of these exist for very specific subjects, for example, Encyclopedia of library and information science (Dekker, 1968-). These specialised works can obviously devote a good deal more space to aspects of their own subject than is possible in one of the generalist encyclopaedias. To check whether there is a specialist encyclopaedia available in a particular discipline the guides to reference books by Walford and Sheehy can be consulted.

Dictionaries

For many information searches when a librarian or information worker is faced with a word with which he or she is not familiar a dictionary may be the best work to consult first in a literature search. The dictionary is the type of reference book most familiar to all of us and the type most likely to be found in many homes.

Students should become aware of the vast range of dictionaries of various types. These can be divided into a number of categories:-

1. General language dictionaries

   These are the basic dictionaries of each language dealing in the meaning, origins, spelling, pronunciation etc. of words. In Britain there is the massive multi-volumed Oxford English Dictionary (O.U.P. 1933 and supplements) which illustrates the development of meanings of words by quotations demonstrating usages of the words.

   There are dictionaries both large and small to meet the varying needs of different categories of people:- the scholar, the student, the general reader. Many publishers of dictionaries issue "families" of dictionaries ranging from major works to small pocket dictionaries.

2. Special purpose dictionaries

Although general dictionaries will usually indicate spelling, pronunciation etc of words some dictionaries concentrate one just are aspect. For example, there are dictionaries devoted to spelling alone or just to pronunciation. Many dictioanries specialise in just one aspect of language such as abbreviations, acronyms, cliches, dialect, eponyms, idioms, rhyme, slang, synonyms etc.

If you do not know the meaning of any word in the above list - look it up in a dictionary! There are many more spcialist types of dictionary on various kinds of words and their usage. To find out more about them consult some of the books in the bibliography.

3. Subject dictionaries

Many words are used only in certain occupations or professions and will not be found in a general dictionary. To meet the need for explanation of such words practically every subject will have its own dictionary explaining the meaning of the terms used in that field. Some of these dictionaries will contain such detailed information that they can be described as encyclopaedic dictionaries. When asked for information about the meaning of a word the librarian or information worker should always try to find from the enquirer the context or background in which he met the word. Knowing this may help the librarian to decide whether the word is a term used in one particular subject area. To find out whether there exists a dictionary to cover any specific subject the guides to reference books by Sheeby or Walford should be consulted.

4. Foreign language dictionaries

Most libraries will also hold a selection of the most important dictionaries in foreign languages translating the meaning of foreign words into English. You should remember that many foreign words have already found their way into the English language and are used in their original language in books and papers written otherwise entirely in English. Special purpose dictionaries include a number of examples of listings of foreign words used regularly in English and their meanings. The better general dictionaries will also list many of the foreign words that are now regularly accepted in English.

Yearbooks and Directories

In any reference collection a great number of the books will be yearbooks or directories. A yearbook, as the name implies, is an annual publication although the title is sometimes given to works which appear less frequently. The essential feature of a directory is to give the address, plus telephone, telex numbers etc of people or organisations. However, many directories contain much more than these minimum details and many yearbooks provide directory information. For these reasons these two categories of reference material are usually considered together.

There are many thousands of yearbooks and directories published so it is helpful for the student to become aware of a number of different types. This will aid in the location of relevant information.

A main category of yearbook is the annual review of events of the year. This is often provided by the multi-volumed encyclopaedias which often produce an annual volume to update an earlier edition of the main encyclopaedia. Consultation of this type of review volume is a useful and to finding up to date information.

There are a number of annual publications which review progress in each country of the world and also describe the activities of the major international organisations. Two oustanding examples are the Statesmans Yearbook (MacMillan) and Europa Yearbook (Europa Publication). It should also be remembered that many individual countries and regions of the world publish their own annual reviews e.g. Britain: an official handbook (H.M.S.O.).

Another category of yearbook are those that describe the activities of organisations: governments, international organisations, educational institutions, societies and associations etc. Many intitutions also issue annual reports describing their work during the past year. Yearbooks of organisations will often include directory information e.g. names and addresses of committee members, officials, employees etc.

A popular type of yearbook is the almanac. Originally designed to give calender and astronomical information the modern almanac, e.g. Whitakers Almanac (J. Whitaker and Sons Ltd) is a compendium of factors and figures - a miniature encyclopaedia which concentrates of current information about nations, institutions and modern society. An American equivalent is World Almanac and Book of Facts (New York, World Almanac).

The most familiar type of direcotry is the telephone directory. These publications not only give telephone numbers but they usually provide addresses also. Additionally, information about the various businesses and trades of an area will usually be obtainable in a separate section or separate publication. The telephone directories are good examples of directories of places. Many cities and towns in various parts of the world will have a directory or guide sometimes published by the city itself.

Another type of directory is the directory of people. Many professions and occupations will have their own directory of members showing the positions they hold and perhaps giving other information such as their business address. Clergy, company directors, doctors etc are examples of professional people who in many countries will be listed in directories of their profession.

Next are directories which deal with organisations, their officials and their activities. As explained above many organisations will publish a yearbook concerning their activities and this can usually be used as a directory to find addresses etc of departments and officials. Then there are directories which list particular types of organisation like educational institutions, societies and associations, museums and art galleries etc. For each type of organisation there is usually a directory, sometimes more than one.

Another type of directory is the trade directory. There are many directories for the business community. These will list manufacturers and their products, identify the "trade names" that firms use to name their products, guides to the financial and management organisation of companies etc. This is an important and specialised field, that of commercial information, and students can read more about it in the books listed in the bibliography.

Yearbooks and directories are so numerous that they will form the major part of the stock of any reference library. However, students should note that there are a number of useful publications to aid them in locating directories and yearbooks on various subjects. In the U.K. there is Current British Directories (C.B.D. Research Ltd, irregular). This is a major guide for British publications from a publisher specialising in directories of many kinds. In the United States there is published Directory of Directories (Gale Research, 1983) and in Africa Current African Directories (C.B.D. Research 1972).

Of particular interest to librarians and information scientists are directories of societies because these organisations are important disseminators of information. In the U.K. there is the Directory of British Associations (C.B.D. 7th edition, 1982) and in the United States Encyclopaedia of Associations (Gale, annual).

Librarians and information scientists are especially interested in directories of libraries, information centres, museums, art galleries, research in progress by scholars and scientists in educational institutions, government, industry etc. We must know of all potential information sources. All of those mentioned above are covered by directories the titles of which can be located in the guides to bibliographies listed above and searching under the appropriate subject.

Biographical and geographical information

In most reference libraries, questions about people and places make up a large proportion of the enquiries received. Specialised publications cover these subjects and some will be mentioned briefly below.

For biography many guides are published. Many countries and regions of the world will have a publication of the "Who's Who" type modelled after the British annual published by A. and C. Black. So popular are these listings of biographical data about well-known people that are now produced for many professions, occupations and fields of study. Consult one of the guides to reference books for detailed listings.

For famous people of the past there are several possible sources of information. Most encyclopaedias will have substantial biographical coverage. There are also a number of biographical dictionaries and encyclopaedias such as the McGraw Hill Encyclopedia of World Biography (McGraw Hill, 1973). Additionally, a number of countries will publish a national biography covering prominent citizens of the past. Guides to reference material will list all the major biographical publications of this type.

To obtain geographical information a first requirement is a comprehensive listing of all the places in the world including mountains, rivers,as well as cities and towns. Such listings are called gazetteers and the most famous of these is the Columbia Lippincott Gazetteer of the World (Columbia University Press, 1952, plus supplement 1961). No gazetteer can be totally comprehensive so many other similar publications are published for various countries and regions of the world. These reference works must be suplemented by atlases containing detailed maps of the various countries of the world. Most students will have used an atlas at school but librarians and information scientists must know not just the outstanding general atlases but also know of the spcialised atlases which cover historical, economic, climate, population and many other matters in map form.

Reference work

The purpose of a reference library or information service is to help users find the information they need. This is achieved firstly by providing information sources for users to consult and catalogues and indexes to them, secondly by answering information enquiries from users and, thirdly, in the special library/information service by anticipating users' needs by mean of "current awareness" and "SDI" services.

It is with the second of these functions that we will close this survey. Answering users' questions is a professional task but library information assistants may be involved in some stages of the process and should have some idea of searching methods to follow.

We have reviewed the many different types of information sources. It has been explained that all have their own bibliogrphies and indexes although some are incompletely covered. Although all libraries do not hold every type of information source the trainee librarian/information scientist ought to find out as much as possible about each type and the guides to them. The books listed in the bibliography will help in this.

All users of libraries and information services have a right to expect that the staff will be able to trace information about books even if about nothing else! You ought to become familiar with the main bibliographies mentioned above. Although seemingly complicated at first there are in fact, just a few which give coverage over most books published in English. Knowing about bibliographies will do more than make you knowledgable about books - it will help you when searching for information on many subjects. So many books are available that numerous subject enquiries can best be answered by locating a book connected with that subject and searching its index for the specific item of information required.

Textbooks on reference library work often have lengthy sections on what is called "the reference interview". Explained briefly this means that before attempting to find the answer to a user's question the librarian/information scientist must make absolutely certain that he knows exactly what the enquirer wants and background to the enquiry. Often an enquirer will not give the exact scope of his question when making his initial enquiry. By patient discussion the librarian information scientist must establish the background to the question, the exact nature of the query, the level and scope of the answer required.

However, many questions asked in reference libraries are specific factual enquiries of the type which can often be answered from reference works. Some of the simpler enquiries might well be within the capacity of the well trained assistant to answer.

Too many reference library staff forget that any book in the library may provide the answer to a user's question not just those in the reference department. It is good practice in most information searches to begin with the library catalogue to check if there is a book which may assist in finding the answer.

There is no easy way to learn how to answer specific fact enquiries. You will only be as good as your knowledge of reference books. Experienced reference librarians learn of the existence of new reference material almost every day. Start by gaining an understanding of the basic types of reference works described in the preceding pages. The reference process consists of trying to match the question asked with an information source which is likely to contain the answer. The more you know about the sources available the more help you will be able to give to the enquirer.

The fact that enquiries about people and places are frequently made in reference libraries was noted earlier. Names of people and places are easily identifiable "keywords" with which to commence a search. Searching "keywords" are vital to the information seeker because our effective use of information sources depends on the indexing which is provided. If an enquiry does not give us an appropriate "keyword" under which to search our task will be difficult but not impossible.

Biographical and geographical sources illustrate this point. When asked for information about a named person we have our "keyword". Where will we find biographical details or that person? We review in our minds the range of biographical sources:- encyclopaedias: biographical dictionaries or the types described earlier: newpaper indexes and digests: Biography Index. Many people will have their biographies in book form so we will check catalogues and bibliographies. Much will depend on how well known the person is or was, on whether he is a historical figure or currently in the news. Many people will not be prominent enough to feature in biographical dictionaries but we may find something about them in professional directories and yearbook.

Places too are helpful "keywords". Well known places, large cities and towns for example, will appear in general encyclopaedias. For smaller places we will need to consult gazetteers. It must be remembered that each country's reference works will naturally concentrate more on their own nation than others so we will look for the most appropriate encyclopaedia or gazetteer. There are specialised yearbooks for current information about each country. Many countries, cities and regions may have their own guide books or directories.

Thus when we can identify appropriate search terms associated with specific areas of knowledge it should be possible to select suitable reference works for consultation. Enquiries about animals, plants, chemicals, metals, minerals, stars and planets - all of these are identifiable "things" or "objects" which one ought to be able to find in a good general encyclopaedia. For more detailed information special subject encyclopaedias will often be available and of course there will be books on all these subjects.

Ideas and beliefs, customs and traditions, political, social, or economic theories are not always easy to identify. There may be many possible "keywords" or searching approaches. We may need to find the precise meaning of some of the words we are given. This will involve the checking of general and specialised dictionaries. The dictionary is the most basic of all reference books and may be the starting point in many information searches.

For recent information on any subject it is necessary to use yearbooks, subject indexes to periodicals, and newspaper indexes and digests. Almanacs have rightly become one of the most useful types of reference works because they collect in one volume the kind of current information people most often need. All reference books have to be used with caution because changes are always taking place. For that reason the news digest publications are extremely helpful.

There are many specialised reference titles that it has not been possible to mention in this paper. You should use the list of recommended readings to become familiar with as many titles as possible. Concentrate however, on key works like various guides to reference material, directories of directories, guides to information sources, and unusual reference titles. Remember if you need to find out whether there is an encyclopaedia, a dictionary or a handbook in a particular subject you have the guides to reference material to aid your memory.

Appendix 1

Self - Test Questions

GENERAL:

1. What is librarianship?
2. What is documentation?
3. What is the difference between librarianship and documentation?
4. What is information?
5. What is information science?
6. How is new information produced?
7. What is research?
8. Which type of organisations sponsor research?

INFORMATION SOURCES:

1. What are primary sources of information?
2. What are secondary sources of information?
3. Why are periodicals important as sources of information?
4. Which types of organisation publish periodicals?
5. How can you find out which periodicals are published on a certain subject?
6. How can you find out which periodicals are published in England?
7. What is a union catalogue of periodicals?
8. What is a subject index to periodicals?
9. What is meant by government publications?
10. Why are government publications important information source?
11. What are reports?
12. Why is report literature an important source of information?
13. What is a patent?
14. What is trade literature?
15. What is a thesis/dissertation?
16. What is a monograph?
17. What is a pamphlet?
18. Which type of organisations publish pamphlets?
19. Which type of organisation publish books?
20. What is an abstracting service?

INFORATION RETRIEVAL:

1. What is U.D.C.?
2. What is post-co-ordinate indexing?
3. What is a thesaurus?
4. What is Selective Dissemination of Information?
5. What is "Current Awareness?
6. What is a "user profile"?
7. What methods are used by librarians/documentalists to keep users informed of new publications and information which may interest them?
8. What alternatives are there to the circulation of periodicals as drawing library users' attention to new periodical articles?

BIBLIOGRAPHY:

1. What is a national bibliography and what kind of material will be listed?
2. How can you find out which books are still "in print" in Britain or the U.S.A.?
3. How would you keep yourself informed of new books published by commercial publishers in Britain or the U.S.A.?
4. How would you keep yourself informed of new books published in a specific subject field?
5. What is a bibliography of bibliographies?

Appendix 2

Literature Searching

SOURCES:

1. Reference Books:
   - a. Dictionaries
   - b. Encyclopaedias
   - c. Handbooks and manuals
   - d. Yearbooks and directories

2. Books:
   - a. National bibliographies
   - b. Book trade bibliographies
   - c. Published library catalogues
   - d. Subject bibliographies

3. Periodical articles:
   - a. Subject indexes to periodicals
   - b. Abstracting services
   - c. Reviews/bibliographic essays
   - d. Subject bibliographies

4. Other materials:

   Newspapers; theses/dissertations; government publications; patents; reports; standards:

   AV materials; microforms

   These have their own specialised indexes and bibliographies; some are also covered by major subject abstracting publications.

METHODS:

1. The reference interview
2. Identification of search terms/keywords
3. Define the limitations of the search
4. Systematic searching

Please follow the instructions below in searching for information on your given topic which is:

1. Check word in the Oxford English Dictionary
2. Look the topic up in the following encyclopaedias: Britannica; Americana; Everyman.
3. Can you find a specialised subject encyclopaedia or handbook which deals with your subject? (This may not be possible in every case).
4. Is there a directory or yearbook which give information on your subject? (This may not be possible in every case)
5. Are there any books in the library on this topic? Check the subject index and the card catalogue.
6. Are there any books in print on this subject? Check Books in Print and British Books in Print.
7. Were any books published on this subject in the United Kingdom during the years 1981 to 1983? Check British National Bibliography.
8. Can you find any published bibliographies of this subject? Check in T. Besterman World Bibliography of Bibliographies.
9. Can you find some periodical articles on this subject? Check Humanities Index and Social Sciences Index.

For question 1 and 2 just give the page number on which you found the information. For question 3 and 4 simply name the subject encyclopaedia, handbook, yearbook or directory which you found useful. For questions 5 and 6 just list one book you find on the subject. For question 7 please note if you do find any books published in those years. For question 8 name one bibliography (if you find one). For question 9 list one periodical article (if you find one).

Bibliography

Although there are numerous books covering the subjects dealt with in this module there are few at elementary level. Those listed below are recommended because of their thorough coverage: some will be rather too detailed for the beginner but they will be useful as works of reference.

Bibliography and reference work:-

Grogan, Denis Practical reference work. (London, Library Association, 1979).

An introduction for librarianship students to the techniques of reference library work.

Grogan, Denis Science and technology: an introduction to the literature 4th. ed. (London, Library Association, 1982).

An example of a guide to subject literature. Although concentrating on science and technology it is the best account of the purposes and use of the different information sources.

Higgens,Gavin, editor. Printed reference material 2nd. edition (London, Library Association, 1984).

A survey of reference resources for students of librarianship. Comprehensive and well described but rather advanced for beginners.

Documentation and information work:-

Anthony,C.J., editor. Handbook of special librarianship and information work 5th. edition (London, Aslib, 1982)

The best survey of all aspects of special librarianship and information work. Contains much useful information but some sections will be too advanced for beginners.

Hanson, C.W. Introduction to science information work (London. Aslib, 1971).

Although now outdated and too British orientated this useful text was written with beginners in information work in mind.

Kemp, Alasdair Current awareness services (London, Library Association, 1979)

A useful introduction for students to methods of dissemination of information.

Guides to reference books:-

Walford, A.J. Guide to reference material (London, Library Association) 4th edition was published in three volumes as follows:-

V.1 Science and technology 1980
V.2 Social and historical sciences, philosophy and religion 1982
V.3 Generalities, Languages, the Arts and Literature 1986

Also Walford, A.J. Concise guide to reference material (London, Library Association, 1981)

Sheehy, Eugene P. editor, Guide to reference books. 4th edition (Chicago, American Library Association, 1986).

Walford and Sheehy are the essential bibliographies listing bibliographies and reference material on all subjects.

Module 3 **Management and administrative studies**

Introduction to Library Management	Session 1
Library and objectives	Session 2
Division of work in a library	Session 3 and 4
Planning of library and comumentation centres	Session 5 - 7
Library budgets and budgetting	Session 8
Role of communciation in library management and administration	Session 9

K. Mchombu

MODULE 3: SESSION 1

INTRODUCTION TO LIBRARY MANAGEMENT

Library Management was, until quite recently, considered an unnecesary subject in courses of librarianship. It was believed that if a librarian knew classification, cataloguing, reference work, selection etc. this was quite adequate to look after the affairs of a library.

It has now, however, been realised that for a library to run efficiently, the in-charge must know not only how to carry out the technical processes, but also how to provide good leadership to the other library staff members to ensure that library goals are accomplished, and users are satisfied.

There are a number of reasons to explain this change of outlook:

(1) Increase of public funds-libraries and other information units have been receiving big amounts of public funds hence the representatives of the public are interested to that they are run efficiently.

(2) Some libraries have become very big, employing hundreds of staff.

(3) Another reason is the growing importance of libraries and information in the development of a nation to the extent that information is now being regarded as a vital resource for national development.

The task of measuring the efficient performance of an organisation depends to some extent on:

(1) Is the organisation profit making-if it is, inefficiency will very quickly result in bankruptcy.

(2) Is the organisation a non-profit service one libraries fall under this category. It is difficult to detect inefficiency quickly because the measurements of profit and loss are not possible, hence a library can limp on under inefficient leadership for years before the authorities, became aware that something is wrong in the library.

What is Library Management

It is to organise and lead library staff so as to accomplish the library's objectives.

Library management is therefore concerned with three things:

(1) Accomplishing library objectives.
(2) Using people to accomplish those goals.
(3) Satisfying user demand for information.

The task of the library manager is to balance the two factors above namely:

(a) the human factors,
(b) the work factor.

If the in-charge is only interested in the amount of work to be done and forgets the human factors, he may turn out to be a slave driver, an autocratic, and will soon come into conflict with the library staff. He will be called inhuman.

On the other hand, if he is only interested in the human factor, he will be too accomodating and very little work may be done-as each employee attends to individual problems/interests during working hours.

Managing is therefore how to balance the human factor and the work factor so that the library carries on efficiently doing what it is supposed to do. It also means obtaining the highest level of user satisfaction using existing resources.

Some major principles of management. Over the years management experts have developed a number of principles of good management. The following are the most important of these principles.

1. Division of Work or Specialisation - means assigning each worker a specific task to do. In the library this is done through giving each worker a job description. In some well managed libraries each worker may also have her/his annual objectives as part of the annual review of her job description.
   - this enables workers to develop a high degree of skill thus create efficiency.
   - the supervisor has better control because of dealing with a small range of activities.
   - job-satisfaction may increase because workers get the satisfaction of doing something well.
2. Authority and Responsibility- Authority is power to make people do what the one in authority wants, if they don't do as ordered steps are taken against them. For a library staff who is not at the top, in order to carry out his/her responsibilities enough authority must be delegated to enable him/her to accomplish assigned responsibilities.

In many libraries, we find responsibility is delegated but not authority. For reasons we shall look at later, many senior library personnel may fear to delegate their authority to juniors because of doubts that the junior can do the task properly, or because of fear of losing their authoriy and power.

3. Unity of Command - It is very difficult for employees to work efficiently if they receive orders from more than one boss, which may be in conflict; this may create frustration, confusion, and devided loyalties.

Hence ideally, employees should receive orders only from one supervisor. At the same time each supervisor can only effectively and efficiently supervise a limited number of subordinates. If a supervisor has too many subordinates to supervise his effectiveness over them is weakened. The number of people under one supervisor is called span of control.

4. Job Security:

For a person to work wholeheartedly he/she needs to feel secure and wanted in their jobs.

- If there are threats or unjustified dismissals, or other forms of injustice there will be many people leaving the organisation after only a short stay-
- Lack of job security may also lead to absenteeism, and other forms of demoralisation.
- Suggestions of the individual should be taken seriously/Participation in management.

5. Lines of command - there is need for an organisation hierachy, which is formalised. This should reflect the flow of authority and responsibility.

6. Team-Spirit- An organisation has a chance of more efficiently if a team spirit pervades the whole group rather than if the organisation is divided into small factions fighting each other.

Further Reading:

1. Evans, Edward Management Techniques for librarians Academic Press, 1976. ch. 1.
2. Thapisa, Amos Library Management Essentials and Principles: A Pedagogical Approach., 1984. p. 16-22.

Module 3: Session 3

Practical Activities

1. What are the factors which have caused library management to be regarded as an important subject in librarianhip?
2. What problems is there in measuring the efficient performance of a library?
3. What 3 areas is library management concerned with?
4. What does the phrase 'balancing the human factor and the work factor' mean?
5. Mention 3 principles of management and briefly discuss one of them.

MODULE 3 SESSION 2

LIBRARY GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Successful library management depends on knowing where the library information unit is going and how it expects to arrive there. Such a sense of direction is best realised if the library has (1) clear goals (2) maningful objectives (3) a good organisation structure for implementing its objectives.

The purpose of this discussion is to look at the first two of these ideas inorder to see how they actually help in the efficient management of a library. Idea number (3) will be discussed under a separate heading in this book.

Library Goals

A goal is a long term achievement of the library, it is a generalised statement which establishes the direction to which the library is moving.

Examples:

- The goal of the Public library is to satisfy the community's need for printed information.
- The goal of a University library is to satisfy teaching/learning informational requirements of staff and students.
- The goal of a spcial library/documentation centre is to provide especialized information to its group of users.

From the above examples we can see that:

- goals are not precise but general statements of intent.
- goals are not easy to implement because of their diffuse and long term nature which means they can never be fully implemented.

- goals can not be used to achieve a meaningful allocation of resources.

Library Objectives

It is not enough to know where the library is going, we must also work out how it is going to get there. Within the library, the management technique used to achieve this end is by setting library objectives.

An objective is usually an aim stated in concrete terms, it is specific, measurable, and has a time limit. Examples:

- To catalogue and classify 10 items per day.
- To increase the number of borrowed items by 10% by the end of 1986 as measured by issue statistics.

The library objectives shown here are:

- Measurable - how much work is going to be done?
- Directional - shows the expected growth in a specific period of time i.e. growth-oriented.
- Time-bound - shows clearly how much work is to be accomplished in a set period of time.

It can therefore be stated that setting library objectives may help to bring successful management because of a number of reasons:

- Concentrates the energy of the library towards results and hence turns the library into an achievement/results oriented organisation, rather than being trapped in the daily routines.
- Gives staff encouragement when they achieve/or surpass the set objectives, which leads to increased job satisfaction.

- Accostoms the library to evaluate its performance on a continuous basis as part and parcel of the working environment.

Management by Objectives (MBO)

This can be described as a system of library management wherby all the library activities are carefully aimed at fulfilling objectives which have been agreed upon beforehand.

The MBO system can be devided into the following essential steps:

- Objectives are prepared - this involves wide staff participation in determining the required courses of action.
- Objectives are agreed upon - The library staff through meetings agree upon the targets, time, and conditions of performance measurement.
- Objectives are implemented - Action has to be taken to carry out the various library tasks in order to ensure that each task fulfilled is one step taken towards meeting a set target.
- Performance is measured periodically - Implementation must be accompanied by frequent performance evaluation, not only to measure progress, also to discover early enough if something has gone wrong so that corrective measures can be taken.

- Performance is reviewed against set objectives - At the end of the plan period, the performance must be reviewed against the set objectives. If the target has not been reached the reasons why must be worked out so that the next set of objectives will be an improvement.

Preparation of Library Objectives

In general, there are two levels at which objectives may be prepared

- Library wide level - generally these are wider objectives referring to the whole library.
  - For larger library systems they may be set by the senior management team.
- Section/Departmental level - Objectives set at this level are more specific and deal with the library activities at department or section level.
- Individual Staff Objectives - Objectives set at this level concern individual members of staff and conern the responsibilities of each member of staff for that year.

Examples of:

Library Level Objectives for a school library:

To select and acquire curriculum related materials.

To provide user education to students.

Section Level Objectives:

To process all oders within a period of two weeks.

To satisfy 75% of users requests for information using own resources by the end of two years.

Occassionally a conflict might arise between the objectives at section level and the objectives of the parent library:

Example:

Library Level Objective:

To preserve all materials of historical value to the country for an unlimited period of time.

Readers Section Level Objectives:

To ensure that all library materials are available for two week loan to registered members.

Here the objective of preserving materials for posterity, conflicts with the objective of unrestricted home use of materials. Under such cases the objective of the Library as a whole must take precedence over the objective of the section/unit.

There may also be examples of objectives at unit level clashing with each other.

All such differences must be resolved before implementation starts to avoid conflicts in future when implementation is being carried out.

Guidelines for Formulating Objectives

Having decided what the objectives of the library/department/units are to be it is important to ensure that the objectives are properly formulated to ensure that they are capable of being implemented.

The guidelines include:

- The objective should be attainable - Although objectives must make library staff strive to work harder, unrealistic objectives will either be ignored or lead to frustrations.

For example:

- To satisfy all the community's information needs - is unrealistic because it may mean supplying everyone with a television set, a radio, books, films, newspapers etc. Such an objective is not attainable.

- The objective must be specific enough to give an idea of how it is to be achieved, provide a basis for measuring how well the library is performing, and also how it expects to reach the target i.e. resources required.

Example

To have a library service point within 4 miles of each resident of Gaborone in the next 5 years.

- The objectives should be compatible with one another.

  Public/National/Academic libraries are the most likely to develop incompatible objectives because of their wide responsibilities.

  Specialized Documentation centres usually have compatible objectives.

- Need for both long range and short range objectives - Short objectives must be based on long range objectives (4-10) years .

- Short range objectives may be accomplished but may not take the organization towards any goal. In the end of the implementation period it may be discovered that the library has been moving round in circles and is exactly where it was at the beginning.
- Hence the evaluation of short term objectives must be measured in the light of the long term objective.
- The objectives which are finally agreed upon must be communicated to both the staff and users. An attempt to justify/give reasons why a particular objective has been chosen is also important.
- Constant feedback on what progress is being made is vital to maintain enthusiasm and cooperation within the library, and as a PR tool.

Further Reading

Evans, G. Edward	Management Techniques for Librarians. London (etc Academic Press), 1976. p. 88-92.
Ritchie, S.	Modern Library Practice, ELM Publications, 1982. ch. 1.
Sinclair, D.	Adminsitration of the small Public Library. Chicago: ALA, 1979. ch. 2.

Activity:

Film on Management by Objectives.

Group Work: Each group to look critically the objectives of one type of Library/information unit and re-draft an improved version and report back in the whole seminar.

Self Testing Questions

1. Write down an example of a library goal and a library objective from your own library? (If your library does not have written down goals or objectives, try to formulate them).

2. What is the difference between a library goal and a library objective?

3. What characteristics should good library objectives have?

4. How can the formulation of objectives lead to the efficient management of a library?

MODULE 3: SESSION 3 & 4

DIVISION OF WORK IN A LIBRARY

The purpose of this session is to look at the principles behind the division of work in a library/information unit to ensure the efficient performance of task in the library to fulfil library objectives/targets.

As we saw in the preceding lectures on organisation constitutes two or more people who have come together in order to achieve a common goal. For this to succeed both cooperation and coordination are a vital part of the work environment. The way to achieve this cooperation and coordination is by devising a system of sharing the work among the library staff.

In this lecture we shall look at the following important library management ideas which can ensure that such divison of work in a library works.

- What is organizing?
- Techniques of departmentation!
- Span of control
- Team management
- Organization charts

What is organizing?

In a library, at any one given time, there are a number of activities going on at the same time in different units. The purpose of organizing is to help these different units work together to accomplish the library objectives.

Organising can therefore be defined as:

- a method of arranging work units and resources in a library to accomplish library objectives.
- the act of providing the structure within which work is accomplished.

The structure permits the horizontal and vertical coordination between working units. Within the library such organizing as described here brings about a number of benefits:

- every one knows what they are supposed to do.
- lines of authority and responsibility are clear and there is no doubt as to who is responsible for what and who is accountable to who and for what.
- lines of communication which follow lines of authority and responsibility become known so everyone is aware through who official communication is sent, and from whom to expect communication.

Departmentation

Departmentation refers to the process of dividing the work in the library into semi-independent units, so that individuals and groups of library staff can be allocated the tasks.

We may also say, this is the grouping of activities so that they can be carried out easily and efficiently to accomplish library objectives.

In libraries there are at least five departmentation techniques which are commonly used namely:

Functional departmentation

Geographical departmentation

Departmentation by form of materials

User oriented departmentation

Subject departmentation

. Functional departmentation

This method relies on grouping activities around the major functions of a library e.g.

Acquisitions

Technical services (incl. cataloguing and classification).

Reader services/Reference Work

The idea behind functional specialisation is that staff should specialise in one basic function and thus raise their level of performance and allow the library to operate efficiently. This is an ideal method if all the library activities take place at the same locations.

.Geographical departmentation

This is a preferred method of the activities of a library cover a wide geographical area e.g. branch libraries of Public Libraries, or University Libraries, or even big Industrial concerns spread out in a number of countries.

Here we can see that geographical location is the primary factor in determining responsibilities.

A number of problems have to be overcome:

- problems of poor communication because of the distances involved.
- problems of supervising distant branches where the local person might not have the right level of abilities especially in situations where there is a shortage of qualified manpower. However geographical departmentation has a number of advantages:
- provide more personal/individualised services to users
- increase user convenience by bringing the service where they are, hence can increase the number and sizes made of the library.
- reduce the cost of using the library by reducing distances to be travelled/bus fares etc.

.User oriented departmentation

Quite frequently library user needs require specialization of services e.g. children's story telling, schools, services to the blind etc. Experience is required to offer good services and in order to develop such skills that library is usually divided up according to the major user groups. Such divisions are normally found in the Public and National Libraries.

Examples of user oriented departments:

- children section
- Adult section
- schools section
- section for the blind etc.

Another reason for having user oriented organization may come because the physical facility requirements are so different that the only way a group of users can get a satisfactory service is by giving them a separate service.

Good examples here would include children's services where furniture needs are different e.g. smaller shelves, shorter tables and chairs etc. are called for. Similarly partially sighted people with their needs for braille books which are bigger in size hence the need for suitable shelves.

This form of organisation has a number of advantages:

- The library becomes more user oriented thus responding accurately to changing user needs.
- Enables staff to develop specific skills for serving a particular user.

Disadvantages

Vocal user groups can exert strong pressures which may make the library forget its less vocal members.

Departmentation by form of materials

Some forms of library materials need special care/treatment for the library to obtain optimum benefit from its collections. Examples of such materials are serials, records, films, archives, maps, microfilm, realia etc. The skills required to handle such meterials are different then the skills staff require to handle books. In some instances, there is need for special cataloguing, special storage facilities etc.

It is the need for special handling that often forces libraries to organize some sections on the basis of form of materials. The most popular example is the periodicals section in most public and University Libraries. They may be other sections concerned with records, films, video archives, maps etc.

Subject Departmentation

Many large Academic (University) libraries, and Central Public libraries have been organised along subject lines. The librarian incharge of a subject section usually has a graduate qualification in the subject concerned.

A subject section of the library is normally responsible for the following duties:

- collection building/selection
- stock editing, maintenance, weeding and disposal
- readers advisory work
- library instruction
- liaison with users to aid selection

Some services are operated centrally for purposes of economy eg. lending services, acquisitions, technical services etc.

In many libraries the actual practice is to combine more than one method of departmentation at the same time in order to obtain optimum results, for example:

The functional, use and form departmentation may be combined to have the following sections in the library:

- Technical services
- Adult lending services
- Reference services
- Africana section/Periodical section
- Children/schools services

.Span of Control

In order to create a formal organisation structure it is necessary for some posts to be subordinated to others reflecting the levels of authority and responsibility. Span of control refers to the number of subordinates reporting to the same in charge.

If the number of staff reporting to one supervisor is small this is called a narrow span of control. If the number of subordinates reporting to one supervisor is big this is a wide span of control.
A narrow span of control means:

- An organisation with more hierachial levels/hence longer lines of communication
- Higher costs of labour as these will be more senior posts
- Less supervisory time is required as the number of people to supervise is small
- Close supervision hence a chance of greater efficiency

A wide span of control means:

- An organisation with few hierachical levels/shorter lines of communication
- Lower costs of labour as there will be fewer supervisory posts
- More supervisory time is required as there are more people to supervise
- Inadequate supervision may result in inefficiency

It is therefore necessary that the number of people reporting to one in charge is neither too many nor too small. In libraries it has been suggested that the number should be between 3 to 6.

Team management/matrix organisation

The organisation structures discussed above can be criticised that they are rigid with each employee being assigned a particular job and a fixed position in the structure hence it may be difficult for subordinates with good ideas to have them implemented especially if the boss does not like them.

Also the rigid structure may make it difficult for the library to respond to changing conditions in its environment.

In team management staff are organised into teams at each level of hierachy starting at the top with the Senior Management Team, down to Junior Teams of Library Assistants. Team members are not attached to anyone service point hence they are expected to work in any branch of the library system. Good examples of team division is whereby a team will be incharge of children, or lending or reference throughout the system.

Organisation Chart

Whatever method(s) of organizing the library are finally used it is important that the formal structure is drawn to reveal the lines of communication in the organisation, the different departments, and the existing positions.

An organization chart is therefore a basic structure for the establishment of relationships and flow of ideas, activities, authority and reponsibility.

- It shows the flow of authority and responsibility
- It provides order/clarifies relationships as well as showing the status of various positions
- It helps staff members and interested outsiders how the library is organised.

Practical Activities

(a) Each participant to draw the organizational structure of his/her library and explain in brief what activities take place in each unit.

(b) How is the chart related to your library goals.

(c) How is your library organized? By function, subject, form, geographical departmentation? Briefly describe how it operates.

MODULE 3: SESSION 5-7

PLANNING OF LIBRARY AND DOCUMENTATION CENTRES

An organization without a plan can be compared to a ship without a compass - the ship may finally reach its destination but only after a long and roundabout way. This is very costly and such a documentation centre may stagnate at the same point indefinitely because it has no forward planning.

In Tanzania for example most Library and Documentation Centres suffer from lack of planning, the dominant attitude can be termed as "wait and see."

Illustrative examples of problems created by such short-sightedness include Documentation Centre which may subscribe to a large number of periodicals only to find after a year that there are no funds to continue the subscription. Or Documentation Centres which purchase large amounts of documents only to find that they do not have qualified staff to manage the collection, hence all the investment is wasted.

The purpose of this paper is to underscore the importance of planning, and outline how planning is done. The discussion will accordingly look at the following:

1) A description of planning
2) The status of Documentation Centres
3) Steps of planning
4) Implementation requirements
5) Advantages and limitations of planning

1. A description of Planning

Planning is a process whereby we determine the objectives of the Documentation Centre, and formulate targets which are consistent with them, and take action in the best and cheapest way in order to achieve those targets within a given time.

As far as Documentation centres are concerned, their objective is the provision of relevant and up to date information to Users. This objective must then be broken down to targets e.g. Ordering documents, Processing documents, Indexing and Abstracting, Lending, Producing bulletins. The targets are thus closely related with action, and stated in quantifiable terms.

Planning is like looking a head, it helps us to anticipate events, so that things which happen do not take us by surprise. In other words, we do things according to a pre-determined course of action. It is obvious, therefore, that although the plan is the basis of actions, it does not itself produce action, at best a plan is nothing more than a few pages stapled together, and put into a file. The plan must therefore be broken down into specific targets which can be translated into concrete action to enable the Documentation Centre to achieve its objectives.

A plan is based on what will happen in the future but future events cannot always be predicted. This means that if the plan is to be kept alive, it must constantly be kept up-to-date by revision of forecasts frequently in the light of new events.

2. The Status of Documentation Centres

Planning of Documentation Centres is often complicated by the organisational framework - whereby the Documentation unit is a small part of a large organisation. Hence its development plan is part of the general plan of the Parent Institution. Similarly, the fulfilment of the objectives of the Documentation Centres is simply a means of achieving the larger objectives of the Parent Organisation.

2.1 The implication of this is that the status of the Documentation Centre within the organisation will determine the extent of its plan. A Documentation

Centre which is seen to contribute directly to the overall achievement of the objectives of the organisation will be in a very strong position to implement its plans, while a Documentation Centre whose contribution is indirect and not immediately apparent will often be the viction of financial cuts, and its plans will be at a very minor scale. Documentation centres in such a strong position include those in Industry, Research and Academic Institutions.

3. Steps of Planning:

3.1 Formulation of objectives or goals:

The objectives of the Documentation unit must be carefully worked out so that there is a clear sense of direction. In this respect, staff in the Documentation unit must work closely with the Management of the Parent Institution so that misunderstandings are clarified.

Such objectives must be known to all those who work in the Documentation Centre unit. An illustrative example would be a Documentation Centre in the Ministry of Agriculture with the objectives of

1) Supplying up-to-date Agricultural Information to Researchers, Academic Staff in Agricultural Training Institutes.

2) Supplying Information relevant to Agricultural problems identified by the government.

3.2 The existing situation - statistics and data on the present situation must be collected and analysed as a basis for action. Reliability of future action will depend on reliability of present data.

e.g. Number of Users, Subjects to be covered, Previous purchases etc. This step must also include a review of existing problems, the favourable and infavourable conditions? Resources available. Future trends etc.

Finally a programme of action must be drawn showing what the Documentation centre intends to do in the coming year, and the costs involved.

3.3 Implementation Requirements:

In this point, if not before, top management must be made fully aware of the Programme of action and its cost implications. Unless Management is convinced that the Plan is sensible, the financial resources required may not be forthcoming in the right quantities when the tie comes, and thus jeorpadize implementation.

There are a number of things required to ensure smooth implementation, such as:

a) An adequate organisational structure, for example, is necessary to ensure that work flows smoothly. This includes premises, equipment, stationery, procedures of working, and functioning channels of communication with top management, within the Documentation Centre, and also with Users. All these things must come at the early stages of implementation and needless to say, maintained throughout.

b) Staff - The volume of work will determine the number of staff required, and of course, the financial resources the organisation is willing to commit in the form of wages, and staff emoluments.

The type of services will, on the other hand, determine the types of staff to be employed. In general this may include: Librarians, Library Assistants, Typists, and Messengers. With the exception of the first two categories of staff, it is not necessary for typists and messengers to be working full time for the Documentation Centre. Very often typists are found in a typing pool shared by several sections, and messengers may likewise be shared. The crucial factor is to make sure that when there is work to be done there will be someone to do it.

The staff must have the training required to carry out the tasks in the Documentation Centre. Although this training will often be provided by in Library Schools, for the junior staff, inservice training, on the job training, and frequent observational visits are necessary to ensure peak performance.

c) Financial Resources - It is necessary to determine the expenditure required for operating the Documentation Centre and ensure that financing is available. Before deciding on the final expenditures it is important to anlyse the costs so as to ensure that the Documentation Centre obtains the highest benefits from the resources invested bearing in mind the scarcity of financial resources.

For example: Avenues of cooperation with Libraries and Documentation Centres within and outside the country must be thoroughly explored and fully utilised. This will cut down on the need to purchase some documents and hence save funds. The Information Services and international Organisations such as UNIDO, UNESCO, DEVIS, AGRIS, etc must be investigated in order to determine what can be obtained from them at subsidized costs.

It is normal to calculate expenditure on an annual basis the exercise is known as preparing annual estimates. This annual budgetting exercise also provides a good opportunity to test the plan and see how well it is moving towards the intended goal. Any revisions can be made during this annual exercise.

The budget is trationally divided into two categories 1) Capital Expenditure; 2) Re-current expenditure. Capital expenditure is the expenditure for buildings, equipment, furniture, transport vehicles, permanent collection etc.

The capital expenditure which is incurred once in many years will be high at the early stages when the Documentation Centre is being established, but will diminish when the Documetation Centre becomes operational.

Recurrent expenditure is incurred on a continuous basis and it includes salaries of personnel, bills for electricity, water, maintenance costs, stationery etc.

Financial resources from abroad have been responsible for starting many Documentation Centres in Developing countries, in the form of bilateral aid. The main sources of finance have been: The United National and its specialized agencies (particularly UNESCO, UNICEF, FAO, ILO, WHO, UNDP, UNIDO) etc. Other National and International Organisations include: The Rockefeller Foundation, The German Foundation for International Development, British Council, IDRC, USIS etc.

3.4 Regular Evaluation

The need to keep the plan alive by constantly reviewing implementation progress in relation to the set time schedule and revising forecasts is very important. In Documentation Centres, for example, the average price of documents may change in the middle of the annual plan, or the expected financial resources may fail to materialise or the parent Institution may suddently decide that money which was originally intended for other sections but left unspent, should be passed over the library rather than being surrendered to Treasury at the end of the financial year.

In short, therefore, the plan must have a "mobile horizon" whereby flexibility and frequent adjustments are made as the Documentation Centres develops towards its intended target.

1.3 Advantages of Planning:

a) It forces an organisation to forecast its environment. An organisation, therefore, actively prepares itself to meet future problems. This brings in consistently, and commitment.

b) Second, planning gives the information unit a sense of direction in the form of objectives. When an information unit knows what it can, and cannot do, it can begin to set targets. Day to day tasks are fitted into a long run strategy. This brings in consistency, and commitment.

c) Planning provides the basis of teamwork because after determining the goals, and breaking them down to targets, the targets can be further reduced to steps and from where work assignments can be given. Every worker can therefore contribute to the fulfilment of these objectives this leads to high morale. The librarian or incharge, can delegate/and decentralise to subordinates and begin to evaluate but where there is no planning, information unit performance can be evaluated very easily.

1.3.1 Limitations of Planning:

Planning can help in predicting the future, but there is no 100% guarantee that because an information unit has a good plan, it will be successful. There may be a number of reasons for their limitations;

a) Information and data collected from the field may have been erroneous. If the plan was based on incorrect figures, this leads to incorrect diagnosis, and finally to incorrect decisions.

b) Lack of financial support

c) A third problem, may be lack of coordination. Even when the objectives are clear, the departments must devotail their efforts so that they work together. Failure to work together and support each other may be a problem of lack of morale and enthusiasm in one department, may lead the others to fail to accomplish their targets because of inter-dependence.

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MODULE 3: SESSION 8

LIBRARY BUDGETS AND BUDGETTING

Adequate finance is one of the major problems affecting library and Information Units in the Eastern, Southern Africa region. It is nencessary, therefore, for library staff to be aware of the different aspects of library finances and see why financing library and information units is a vital part of library management.

In this session we shall look at the following aspects:

- Distribution of the library budget
- Types of expenditure in a library
- Sources of financing libraries
- The budgetting process
- Types of budgets

Distribution of the library budget.

Financial requirements for Information Units can be devided into three parts:

Start-Costs: These are costs required for starting an information unit e.g. construction of buildings, purchase of equipment and furnishing, consultancy, initial materials/basic documents. Most of these costs can be categorised as capital expenditure because they are not incurred every year.

Annual Operating budget - These are costs required for the operation of the Information Unit. Most important item here is salaries, repairs, annual subscriptions, addition to the collection etc. Because these costs occur every year they are also known as re-current expenditure.

Future costs- These are costs to be incurred in future e.g. extension of the information unit, new or improved equipment, salary increasements/ promotions etc. They may be incurred as part of the forward planning process.

If we look at costs in terms of how the level of library activities increased/decrease them- we have two categories:

Fixed costs- Costs which are constant and have to be paid whether or not the library is operating e.g. rent, salaries (in the short run), electricity, bills, etc. These costs are sometimes called overheads.

Variable costs- Costs which rise as the level of operations increases e.g. acquisitions, frequency of current awareness services, number of information searches etc.

Types of Expenditures in a Library

Without exception there are two main areas at expenditure in any library (a) Salaries (b) Acquisition of documents. In a new library howeer we may find that the highest item is the capital expenditure in construction of the building furniture, and purchase of the initial basic collection.

In a typical already established library the expenditure is incurred in the following proportions:

Salaries and benefits	60% - 70%
Acquisition of documents	20% - 30%
Maintenance	4% - 5%
Stationery and Miscelleneous	5% - 7%
Insurance	1% - 2%

Sources of Finance for Libraries/Information Units

Sources of Finance for Lib/Inf. Services

1. Government - For public Libraries/National Libraries Government Departments

finance may come directly from
the government/local/central.

- Indirectly through parent
institutions for Academic/
Parastatals libs.

This is the main source of
funds for the majority of libraries.

2. Finances - compel users to observe library
borrowing regulations may create
a small amount of funds.

3. Changing for services/membership fees - some libraries/
information units charge for
membership, and information
products e.g. bibliographies,
current awareness bulletins etc.

4. Gifts and donations - source of documents and for
libraries/Information Units.
May take the form of cash/kind.
Fund raising activities loans
groups etc.

British Council Book Aid Programme
CODE - Canadian Organisation.
Ranfurly Library Service.

5. Embassies of French, U.S.
USIS, Netherlands. WHO, FAO etc.

6. Foreign aid - Given by friendly international
countries, organisations,
Scandinavia, American, British,
French etc.

Budgets are estimates/alterable/and should be responsive to changes in both the international and external environment.

Budgetary Period

Most libraries operate on a 12 month budgetary period to coincide with the timing of the legislative appropriations. Some libraries have quarterly breakdowns.

The Budget Process

The budget is worked out from: (1) Library Objectives/ Services. (2) envronmental factors/constraints-highest priority being the economic situation of a particular library.

The actual process may be as follows:

- Start by listing library tasks being carried out and supporting services/in the different sections/depts of the library.
- Listing of expansion programmes/new services in the next financial year.
- Inputs and resources required for (a) and (b) are translated to money units with an allowance for inflation.
- The budgets of the different units/sections are comned to have one overall budget for the library which may be presented to the library Committee or Board before it is sent to the highest Authority of a particular library for approval.

Types of Library Budgets

There are three main types of budgets used by libraries

(1) Performance budget
(2) Lump sum budget
(3) Line budget

Performance Budget

This budget related directly to the implementation of library objectives. In simplified terms this is how this budget is arrived at:

(1) Setting a library objective.
(2) Deciding what tasks/activities need to be done to fulfil the objective.

(3) Determining what resources are required to carry out the task/activities/products.

(4) Finding out what the resources required costs.

(5) Doing the same as above for all the library's objectives/supporting services.

(6) Adding together the different costs from the different objective/programs to have a total budget for the library.

Example:

Objective of a National Library:

To produce two issues of the Botswana National Bibliography by the end of the year.

Resources required:

1. Document gathering 52 man-hours
2. Cataloguing/classification 100 man-hours
3. Stationery/duplication materials cards - 100

PPBS is calculated accoring to objectives and activities and relates costs to resources required. The measurement of work and work units are the foundation upon which a performance budget rest. Work measurement show quantitatively how long it takes to do a particular operation/this time unit measurement is then translated to monetary units.

i.e. Unit of work = Unit of time-Unit of money.

e.g. It takes 5 hours to catalogue/classify/Index 10 books at a salary of P20.00.

1 man-hour costs P2/work unit 2 books.

One problem of the performance budget is that it puts too much emphasis on things which can be quantified but in a library many activities can't be quantified e.g. Readers advisory work/literature searches/etc.

These are qualitative activities rather than quantitative.

Man hours is a measuring unit which ignores the fact that staff have to be paid for even when they are resting.

Line Budget

The line budget is the most common in libraries/information units.

This is a budget in which the requirements for carrying out acativities/tasks have been grouped together under rigid items. Each item is assigned a permanent code/vote and estimates are required under this code/vote. If at the end of the financial year money is left in a code, it is not transferrable from one code to another without permission from Treasury.

Example of Line Budget - in Summary Form

Item	Code/Vote	Estimate	Actual Expenditure
		1985/86	1984/85
Salaries	201	84,000	83,000
Benefits	203	8,400	8,400
Documents	301	26,000	14,000
Supplies/ Stationery	401	14,000	13,000
Utilities	504	9,000	8,000
Maintenance	506	15,000	10,000
	Total	156,400	146,400

A line budget is simple to make than PPBS hence its popularity. It has, however, a rigid approach which may lead to stagnation of library development.

Lump Sum Budget

In this type of budget the library is allocated a lump sum of money and told to prepare a budget which will be based on the amount.

The library will therefore itemize important areas of expenditure until all the funds allocated have been accounted for.

QUIZ

1. What is capital expenditure and how does it differ from annual operating budget?
2. What do you understand by variable costs?
3. What is the difference between recurrent expenditure and fixed costs?
4. Mention the two most important areas of expenditure in a library?
5. List five (5) sources of finance for a Library.
6. What does the phrase "budgetary period" mean?
7. In 5 lines describe what you understand by: Performance budget.
8. Line budget
9. Lump sum budget
10. What do you understand by man-hours?

MODULE 3: SESSION 9

ROLE OF COMMUNICATION IN LIBRARY MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The purpose of this lecture is to introduce you to the concept of communication and its importance in the smooth management of a library. In particular the discussion will concern itself with the following:

- Explaining the meaning of communication.
- Highlight the three main elements of communication.
- Outline the methods of communication.
- Relate communication and library management.
- Outline the frequent causes of communication in a library and ways of avoiding such communication breakdown.

The meaning of communication:

It is the exchange of ideas, opinions, messages, orders, ottilides between one source and another. Communication is said to have taken place if the receiver of a message is able to understand it exactly the way the sender intended, otherwise if the message is distorial for one reason or another and results in misunderstanding and causes the wrong action to be taken, then it is said that communication breakdown has occured.

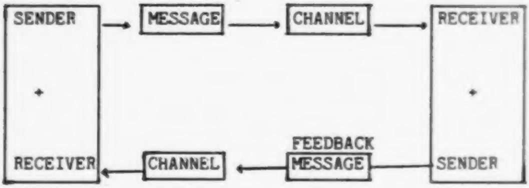
Elements of the communication process:

It is said that the communication process has three basic elements namely; sender, channel and receiver.

A sender- formulates a message (encodes) and uses a channel to pass the message to the intended target. The message may be instructions from the librarian to new readers on how the catalogue is put together, and how they can use it to find what materials the library has in stock. The sender is therefore the source of the message.

Channel refers to the medium through which the message reaches the intended target. e.g. oral presentation, tape recorded message, written memorandum, audio-visual materials, radio etc.

Receiver refers to the intended target of the communication process who after receiving the message decodes it and sends feedback to the message originator through some form of action, or by stopping doing something undesirable, or simply send message to confirm receipt of the original message.



The figure above shows how the communication process is a dynamic process, the originator acting as sender at the top, but later on at the bottom acting as a receiver of the feedback messages from the receiver, who also acts as both receiver and sender.

Methods of communication:

In an organization when an individual wants to communicate there are number of methods which can be used:

- Oral communiation - this is a person to person exchange of messages where the sender of the message and the receiver are in direct contact.

It has a number of advantages, for example, it is quick and can bring instant feedback. It can be made flexible to suit the mood, level of understanding, attitude, of the target audience. In addition, on sensitive issues, it provides opportunities for persuasion, long explanations, and the sincerity of the message sender to be judged on the spot.

In a library good examples where this method is utilised is in staff meetings, discussions, job instructions, on-the-job training etc.

The disadvantages of this method include the non-recorded nature of the message which may cause the receiver to forget some aspects of the message and create problems of implementation. It is not also an ideal method where accountability is required because there is no written evidence to determine whether or not a receiver of a message actually received it. It is a method also prove to personality clashes especially if the sender and receiver do not get on very well.

Despite these disadvantages this is by far the msot used method of communication in library and information units.

- Written communication - in this method communication relies on written messages between the sender and receiver of message. Examples are memorandum, leaflets, library guides, letters, articles in newspapers, job advertisements, reminders to readers, library regulations etc.

The receiver has to be able to read in order to decode the message. The sender should also know how to frame a message properly so that it is not misunderstood.

The advantages include the ability to reach target audiences far away from the sender of the message. It is also a recorded evidence which can be used for implementation and accountability purposes.

The disadvantage includes the possibility of misinterpretation because the sender is not there to clarify the message. On sensitive topics, this method is not able to offer the long explanations, flexibility, and persuasiveness of the oral message.

Visual communication - This method depends on the visual/pictorial presentation of messages. Good examples in the library include charts, wall posters, displays, graphs, pictures, films, video, slides, microfilms etc.

The visual method has the advantage of arresting the attention of the receiver and forcing her to look at the message. This is very important in a society such as ours where many people are illiterate and semi-illiterate and the written word has bot been part of our culture for long.

The problem with this method is that not many library staff are skillful in transmitting messages through this media, quite often a badly designed poster may not only fail to transmit the message accurately but it may offend in its crudeness.

The role of communication in library management:

The important role of communication in management can be illustrated by finding out the contribution of communication in the successful execution of the main areas of management and administration namely: Organizing, Planning, Leadership, Controlling, Services to users, Public relations and promotion.

- Organizing - requires communicating with people on their job assignments, coordination, and providing them with information on current and expected changes in the organization. It also includes informing staff about what is happening in their organization in general.

- Planning - requires communicating with staff on the objectives of the library, and their own individual objectives and responsibilities, and communicating to the staff about the progress that has been made in plan implementation.

- Leadership and supervision requires communication between subordinates and the librarians on personal problems and how to solve them, discipline, problems, and motivational messages to the staff. It also involves setting clear guidelines of what needs to be done, how, by whom, and by when.

- Controlling - discipline is essential whereever a group of human beings work together to attain a common goal. In libraries, we have rules, regulations, deadlines, action plans, all of which must be communicated to subordinates on a continuous basis.

Service to Users and Public Relations - Through purposiveful communication a library can create and maintain a dialogue with its users for the continuous improvement of its services and ensuring it provides relevant and appropriate information. This includes use of radio, newpapers, user education, suggestion boxes, user panels etc.

Main causes of communication breakdown:

- Long lines of communication - When the message has to be passed on through too many individuals it becomes distorted and it may cause a breakdown. Or if the sender is too far away from the receiver physically this may cause delays, or even loss of the complete message.
- Distortion - People may fail to get the intended meaning because of a tendency to make up their mind before hearing the message either because of past negative experience, or personality clashes.
- Semantic barriers - this refers to the difficult a receiver may have in understanding a message the way the sender intended because the words used may mean different things to the two of them.
- Competition of messages - if the sender is transmitting messages at a time when the receiver has other messages coming in communication will not take place as intended.

The sender must ensure that she has the undevided attention of the receiver before delivering messages.

- Autocratic leadership - If a library is not properly managed and staff are not encouraged to air their views it causes resentment, frustration, and rumour mongering. In such an organization the main direction of communication is downwards rather than upwards or horizontaly.
- Other causes of communication breakdown includes: personality clashes, use of the wrong channels, unclear messages, very lengthy messages which over-tax the attention span of the receiver, poor timing in message delivery etc.

Hints for successful communication:

1. Make the message simple and clear.
2. Avoid communicating in situations where feelings and emotions are strongest.
3. Call staff meetings regularly to discuss mutual problems, misunderstandings and exchange of ideas.
4. When giving an order include a clear statement of what results are expected, why, and when.
5. When you communicate seek not only to talk, but hear what the other person is saying (or not saying).
6. Be sure your actions do not contradict your words.

Readings

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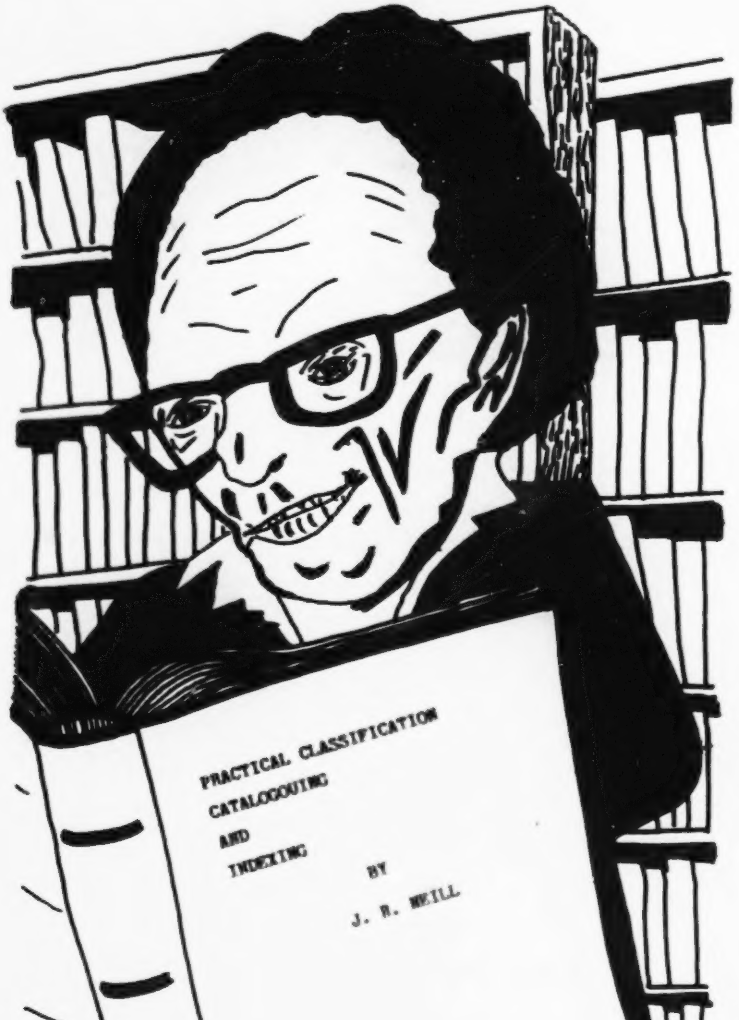
Module 4


PRACTICAL CLASSIFICATION
CATALOGUING
AND
INDEXING
BY
J. R. NEILL
SHN

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PRACTICAL CATALOGUING WITH AACR2

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WHAT DO YOU KNOW?

Preface

Classification, cataloguing and indexing are traditionally that part of the library education curriculum that most students enjoy the least. The aim of this module is to provide librarians and library educators who are faced with the prospect of teaching practical classification and cataloguing either as part of a formal programme or as part of an inservice workshop, with a simple, enjoyable practical approach to their task. The module can be completed in about 24 hours, under guided supervision with each session being prefaced with an explanation of the tasks that are to be performed. Each student will receive individual attention and advice while he is working through the module and each section should be concluded with a general question/answer session.

J.R. Neill
University of Botswana

January 1987

INTRODUCTION TO CLASSIFICATION

One of the major tasks of the librarian is to ensure that maximum and effective use is made of the information and knowledge that is stored in the library. Classification helps the librarian perform this task, forming a vital and essential link in the chain of human communication by bringing together the producers and consumers of information and knowledge.

AACR2
DDC
JAN

Classification is not however just confined to libraries indeed it is something each of us does every day. Classification involves the grouping of things together according to their similarities. Try and think what you have classified today and briefly describe it in the space provided below.

Now imagine you are the manager of a new supermarket that is about to open next week. The shelves are still empty, the store rooms are full of goods to be sold, and tomorrow your staff will be arriving to begin work on preparing the supermarket for the first day of trading.

It is important for you to determine the layout of the supermarket; working out how the shelves will be arranged, in fact how the products you wish to sell shall be classified so that the customers can find what they want easily and quickly.

Below is a list of the produce that you are going to shelve in your supermarket. Add ten addtional items of your own choice and then on the plan of the supermarket over the page indicate where you think everything should be shelved.

Apples

Bread

Cabbage

Drinks- Beer - Coca-Cola - Fanta - Whisky

Eggs

Flour

Groundnuts

Ice Cream

Kitchen utensils

Lemons

Matches

Nuts

Oranges

Potatoes

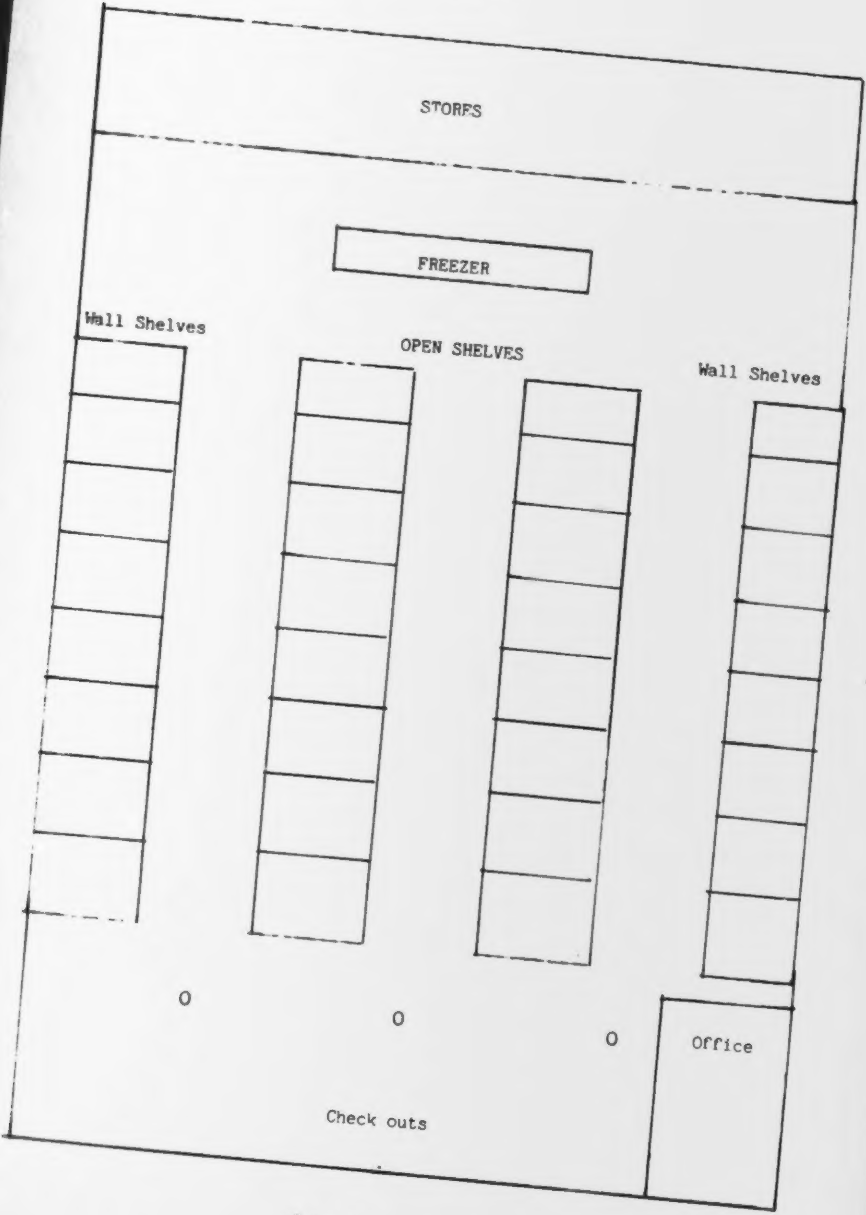
Rice

Sausages

Tissues

Washing Powder

WASHING POWDER 1kg
OMO
RICE CRISPIES
MILK
BUTTER 500g
NESCAFE COFFEE
Frozen chicken 1kg


STORES
FREEZER
Wall Shelves
OPEN SHELVES
Wall Shelves
O
O
O
Office
Check outs

You have just been classifying, that is arranging things in groups according to their similar characteristics. Now let us see how classification is carried out in the library.

Imagine you are the librarian of a new branch library that is about to open next week. The shelves are still empty, the store rooms are full of books, and tomorrow your staff will be arriving to begin work on preparing the library for the opening day.

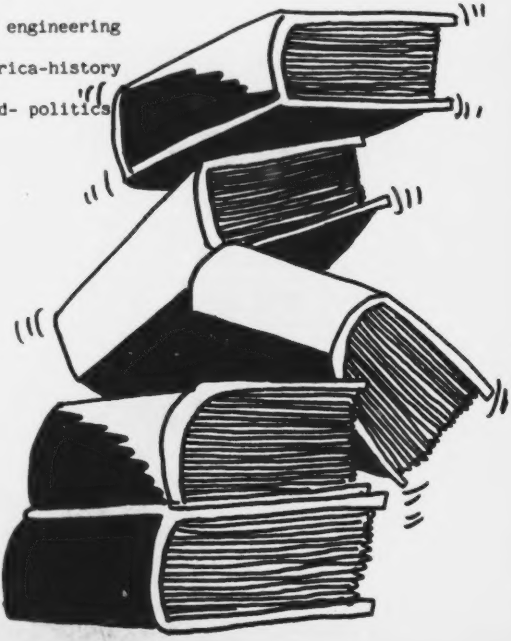
It is important for you to determine the layout of the library; working out how the shelves will be arranged, in fact how the books should be classified so that the library users will be able to find what they want easily and quickly.

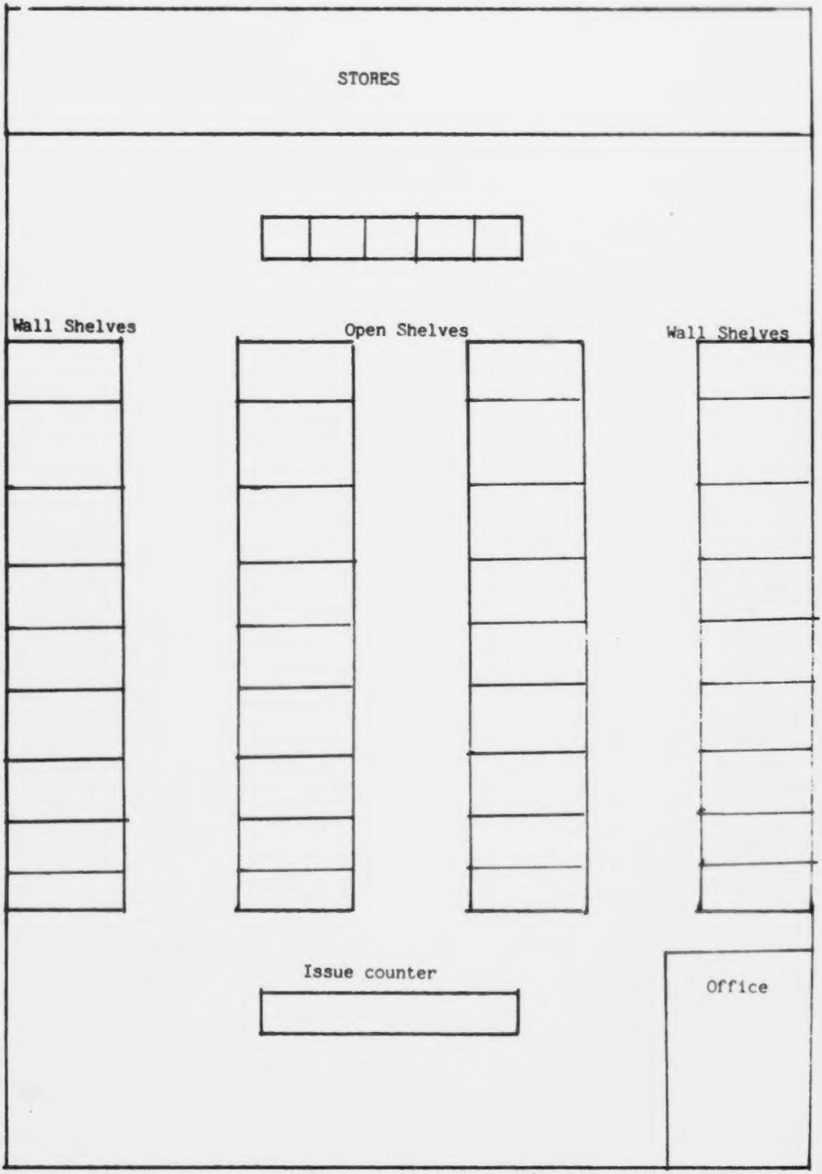
WHERE DO
START
SRN

Below is a list of the various subjects that are represented by the stack of books in your store room. Add ten additional subjects of your own choice and then on the plan of the library over the page indicate where you think everything should be shelved.

Algebra
Astronomy
Biology
Botany
Chemistry
Criminal law
Dictionaries
Descriptive astronomy
Economics
Economics
Education
Encyclopedias
Folklore
Furniture
Geography
Geology
History
Home economics
Hydrology
Inorganic chemistry
Internaltional law
Jesus Christ
Juries
Karate
Kenya-geography
Libraries

Land economics
Malawi-history
Mechanical engineering
Namibia - economics
Nuclear phisics
Orchestral music
Photography
Plant life
Politics
Rare books
Railroad engineering
South Africa-history
Swaziland- politics



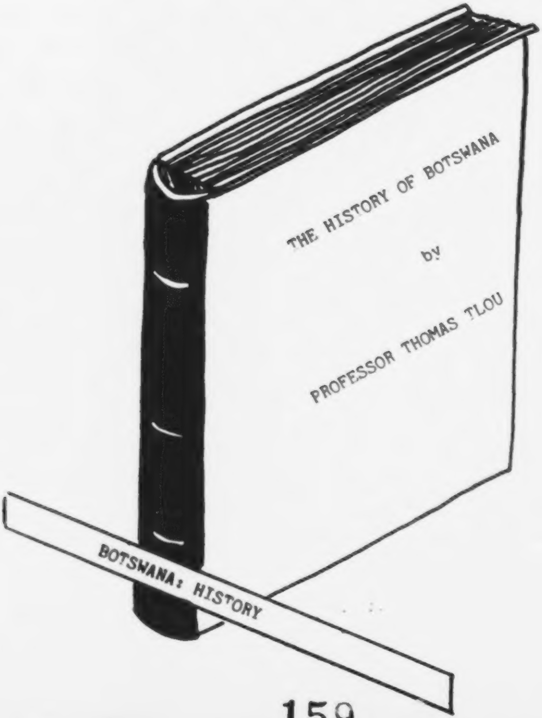

STORES
Wall Shelves
Open Shelves
Wall Shelves
Issue counter
Office

By now you should have a basic idea of what classification is all about in fact during the course of this exercise you have been classifying just as librarians do in a library. Of course library classification is much more complex and involved, as you are about to witness, but this exercise should have served as a useful introduction to aid your understanding.

INTRODUCTION TO DEWEY DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION SCHEME

Last time we concluded that the principal means of classification in the library is according to the subject, and that library classification involves the arrangement of library materials in a definite order according to their subjects.

In order that both librarians and readers should clearly know what the subject content of a book is, we usually place a small label on the spine of each book which indicates the subject of that particular book. However as you will see below it is virtually impossible to write the subject of a book on a small label and it would prove impossible to arrange the books in any logical or proper order.



Therefore in order to make life easier for ourselves we translate the subject content of each book into numbers which then represent that subject and can easily fit on the spine of each book.

For example:

History of Botswana - 968.11
Education - 370
Religion - 200

Each individual subject known to man throughout the Universe is thus assigned an individual class number or notation, and as it is obviously impossible to remember all these numbers, librarians have devised classification schemes such as the one produced by Dewey which is now in front of you.

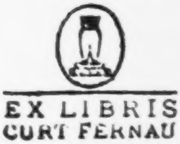
Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme is divided into three volumes:

Volume 1 - Introduction and Tables
Volume 2 - Schedules
Volume 3 - Index

Look into Volume 2 - Schedules and in the space below try and describe in your own words what you find there.

The "Ex Libris" stamp

The easiest way of identifying property belonging to your collection is to rubber stamp the name and address on the inner front cover of books, perhaps also the title page and another one across the pages of the closed book outside, thus reminding borrowers to bring or send it back. Such property stamps are called "Ex Libris" stamps, from the Latin expression meaning "From the book collection of ...". This rubber stamp will help you reduce your work of retrieving and returning overdue items to your library.



EX LIBRIS
CURT FERNAU

In order to assist us to locate various subjects in the Schedules, Dewey has provided us with an Alphabetical Subject Index Volume 3, which you should turn to now.

Look closely through Volume 3-Index and in the space below describe what you find.

For the rest of this exercise we are going to spend the rest of the time locating subjects and their class numbers in the schedules and utilising the index. Not only will this demonstrate the relationship between the index and the schedules but it will also reflect the correct approach to use of the classification scheme.

Look up the subjects that are listed below in Volume 3 - Index and then locate them in Volume 2 - Schedules. Once you have done this indicate in the space provided the correct class number and the appropriate page number in the Schedules where this subject can be located.

Subject	Class number	Page number in Volume 2
Roman Catholic Church		
Land Economics		
Whiskies		
International Law		
Molecular Physics		
Gynecology		
School Libraries		
Cosmology-Mataphysics		
Sins-Christianity		
Labor Economics		
Swahili-Language-Linguistics		
Atomic Physics		

Practical Pharmacy		
Soccer-Sports		
Swahili-Literature		
United Methodist Church		
Slavery-Political Science		
Portugese-Language		
Economic Geology		
Sleep-Psychology		

REVIEW

Regular review sessions of the work you are doing during a course is always essential and of vital importance in order to assist your learning as well as to highlight any unclear or confusing areas.

Below are a number of questions to help you with this, to assist you in finding out what you do know and of course what you don't know.

1. Classification is a process that all of us perform each day of our lives. For example as soon as we get up in the morning we start classifying and continue to classify until we fall asleep at night.

   In your own words and in the space provided below, describe how you classified your day yesterday from the time you woke up until you fell asleep.

   ----

2. List as many different ways that you can think of in which materials in the library are organised, arranged or classified.

----

3. What is the most common way in which we classify or organise materials? --

4. In order for librarians to classify library materials properly they need to use classification schemes - Why?

----

5. Briefly describe in your own words what you would expect to find in the Index to Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme.

6. Briefly describe in your own words what you would expect to find in the Schedules to Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme.

----

7. Look up the subjects that are listed below in Volume 3 Index and then locate them in Volume 2 Schedules. Once you have done this indicate in the space provided the correct class number and the appropriate page number in the Schedules where this subject can be located.

Subject	Class number	Page number in volume 2
Acts of Apostles - Bible		
Branch libraries		
Dewey Decimal Classification		

Exodus-Bible		
French language - linguistics		
German language - linguistics		
Home Economics		
Jesus Christ-Christian doctrines		

NUMBER BUILDING

You may be asking yourselves why we just do not use the index to classify library materials. However classification can be very complicated especially when one is attempting to assign a notation from Dewey to a complex subject.

Dewey helps us to classify such subjects by providing facilities within the Classification Schedules to combine one notation or class number with another in a process known as number building.

Examples

If you had to classify a book whose subject was -JOB VACANCIES IN MICROBIOLOGY - this is how you would go about it.

i) Turning to the index under the term MICROBIOLOGY we are provided with a notation 576.

ii) Similarly by looking up the subject JOB VACANCIES we are provided with a notation under the subdivision - labor economics - 331.124.

iii) Turning to 576 in the Schedules we find no appropriate instructions to combine the notation 576 for MICROBIOLOGY with any other notation.

iv) However on turning to 331.124 in the Schedules we soon note -

331.1241 - JOB VACANCIES in occupations other than extractive and manufacturing industries.

and in addition we find instructions to-

Add 001-999 to base number 331.1241.

This means that to the notation for JOB VACANCIES - 331.1241 we can add any other notation from the Schedules between 001 and 999.

v) MICROBIOLOGY is 576 which we combine with 331.1241 giving us a final answer of 331.1241576 - JOB VACANCIES IN MICROBIOLOGY.

Problems

Now in a similar way attempt to provide the correct notation from DDC to the following subjects. Note that the main class or first part of the class number has been underlined in order to help you arrive at the correct answer.

i) A subject bibliography in international law

ii) Office services in a University

iii) Acquisition of library materials on Football

iv) Law libraries

v) A subject bibliography of Jesus Christ (Christian Doctrine)

vi) Acquisition of library materials on marine geology

The second way of assigning a notation or class number to a complex subject involving number building is as follows -

Example

If you had to assign a notation to a book with the following subject content - REFERENCE SERVICES IN THE PUBLIC LIBRARY - this is how you would go about it.

i) Looking up the subject REFERENCE SERVICES in the Index you find the notation 025.52.

ii) Turning to the appropriate place in the Schedules we soon locate -
025.527 REFERENCE SERVICES IN SPECIFIC LIBRARIES

iii) At this number we find some instructions which tell us to-

Add to base number 025.527 the numbers following 02 in 026-027.

iv) Turning to 026-027 we find 027.4 PUBLIC LIBRARIES

v) Considering once again the earlier instructions we find that the numbers following 02 are 74 which can be combined with the base number 025.527 to arrive at a final answer 025.52774 REFERENCE SERVICES IN A PUBLIC LIBRARY

Problems

Now in a similar way attempt to provide the correct notation from DDC to the following subjects. Note that the main class or first part of the class number has been underlined in order to help you arrive at the correct answer.

i) Reference and information services in school libraries

ii) Cataloguing, classification and indexing of archives

iii) Theory of the satellites of Saturn

iv) Sermons (texts) Catholic

TABLES

The third number building facility employed by Dewey involves the use of the Tables which are contained in Volume 1 Introduction and Tables. There are seven tables with perhaps the most commonly used being Table 1 Standard Subdivisions and Table 2 Areas.

Standard Submissions

Turn to page 1 in Volume 1 Tables and look through Table 1 Standard Subdivisions until you reach page 13 and then in the space below write in your own words what you find.

Standard Subdivisions represent general common aspects of knowledge wich can be combined with almost any notation from the Schedules.

WARNING

1) Standard Subdivisions can be identified in the Index by the prefix s.s. which is the abbreviation for specific subject.

For example when looking up the term Dictionary in the index we find many numbers included-

Dictionary
Spec. Subj. - s.s. -03

ii) Standard Subdivisions can never be used alone they must always be used in combination with a notation from the Schedules.

iii) The first digit of a Standard Subdivision is always -0

iv) Sometimes the schedule will instruct you to precede a Standard Subdivision by one, two, or even three -0's.

Example

If you had to classify a book whose subject content was-

Study and teaching of Christian Preaching

this is how you would go about it.

i) Looking up Christian in the Index we unfortunately find no reference to Preaching.

ii) However when we look up the term Preaching we find -

Preaching
Christianity - 251

iii) Looking up the term Study in the index we soon find -

Study
sepc. subj. - s.s -07

and when we check Teaching we find exactly the same thing-

Teaching
spec. subj. - s.s. -07

iv) Turning to 251 in the Schedules we find-
251 Preaching

with an instruction to use 251.001-009 Standard Subdivisions. This means that we can add to 251 any Standard Subdivision from Table 1 but when we do so we must make sure to include two -0's.

v) Checking Table 1 - Standard Subdivisions we can verify that -07 represents Study and Teaching.

vi) Following the instructions at 251 we can thus arrive at a final answer -

251.007 - Study and Teaching of Christian Preaching

Problems

Now in a similar way, having first of all worked through and clearly understood the previous example assign the correct notation to the following.

i) Dictionary of Rugby
ii) Study and Teaching of Chemical Engineering
iii) Fluid Mechanics - a Manual
iv) Standards for Aptitude Tests (psychology)
v) Data processing and Pedagogical Algebra
vi) Experimental Research and Petrology

Areas

From time to time we wish to show the geographical aspect of a subject and in order to do this we use Volume 1 Introduction and Tables and specifically Table 2 Areas.

Turn to page 14 in Volume 1 and quickly look through to page 386 and then in the space below write in your own words what you find.

Table 2 - Areas represents practically all the geographical areas of the world and can be combined with any class number from the schedules in order to signify the geographical aspect of any subject.

WARNING ! !

- The notations contained in areas tables can never be used on their own.
- The notations contained in area tables can only be used in conjunction with notations contained in the schedules.
- Notations from the area tables can only be combined with notations from the schedules when instructed to do so.

Example:

If you had to classify a book whose subject was - Selection and acquisition of library materials from Botswana this is how you would go about it:-

i) In the index we are provided with a number of starting points including -

acquisition - library economy -	025.2
Selection - books - library economy	025.21
Botswana - republic - area -	6811

ii) Turning to 025.2 in the schedules we are soon guided to -

025.29	Selection and acquisition of library materials from various and specific places

This means that we can add on any area notation from table 2 to base number 025.29

iii) Checking in Volume 1 - Table 2 - we confirm that - 6811 is the correct notation for Botswana and can thus combine it with our base number to arrive at a final answer -

025.296811 - Selection and acquisition of library materials for Botswana

A useful way to check the correctness of your answer is to translate the class number as follows:-

0 - Generalities
2 - Library and Information Sciences
5 - Library Operations
2 - Acquisitions .... etc
9 - Acquisition .... in specific areas
6 - Africa
8 - Southern Africa/South Africa
1 - Former High Commission Territories
1 - Botswana

PROBLEMS

After working through the previous example to see exactly how the answer was derived assign as specific a notation as you can to the following using -

Vol. 3 - Index
Vol. 2 - Schedules
Vol. 1 - Table 2 - Areas

1. General libraries in Swaziland
2. University of Botswana Library
3. Public Libraries in Lesotho
4. Science (Travel) in Zambia
5. Folk Songs from Malawi

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

Assigning a notation for the history or geography of a specific place is very easy. All you have to do is follow the instructions outlined below:

History To produce a notation for the history of a specific place is quite an easy affair as it simply involves adding the appropriate notation from Table 2 - Areas to base number - 9 and placing a decimal point after the 3rd digit.

thus:

9 + 8611 = 986.11 = History of Botswana

Geography To produce a notation for the geography of a specific place is similarly easy. All you have to do is to add the appropriate notation from Table 2 - Areas - to base Number 91 and placing a decimal point after the 3rd digit.

thus:

91 + 6811 = 916.811 = Geography of Botswana

PROBLEMS

Now in a similar way using -

Vol 3 - Index and
Vol 1 - Table 2 - Areas

assign as specific notation as you can to the following:

1. History of Lesotho
2. Geography of Lesotho
3. History of Keighley
4. Geography of Keighley

REVIEW

Using DDC assign as specific a notation as you can to the following.

i) Acquisition of Archives as an aspect of library economy

ii) Facilities for teaching blind students

iii) Secondary education for the effective use of leisure

iv) Socialism (economics) in the eighteenth century

v) Universities and colleges - opportunities for playing Basket ball.

vi) Study and teaching of the Bible

vii) A subject bibliography of the history of Botswana

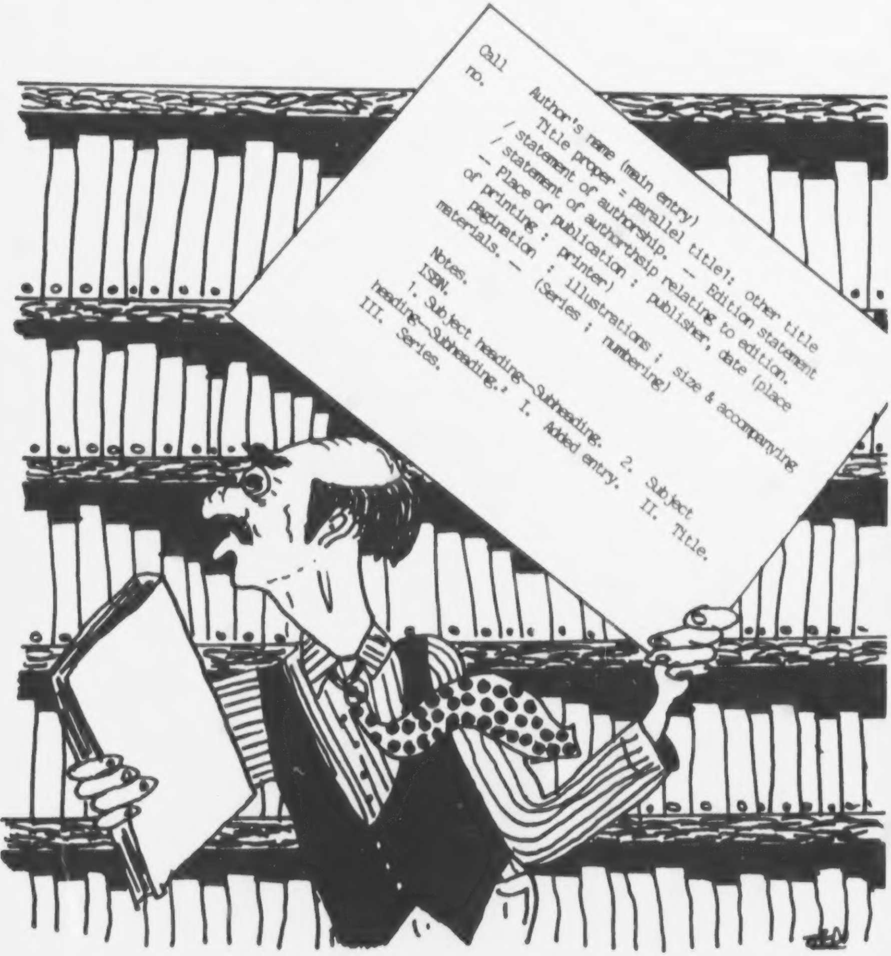
viii) A subject bibliography of the geography of Botswana

ix) Public libraries in East Africa

x) University libraries in West Africa

INTRODUCTION TO CATALOGUING

In order to help readers locate materials on the library shelves it is important for the librarian to develop a catalogue which will list all the books that are contained in the library.



Call no.
Author's name (main entry)
Title proper = parallel title1: other title
/ statement of authorship. -- Edition statement
/ statement of authorship relating to edition.
-- Place of publication : publisher, date (place of printing : printer)
pagination : illustrations ; size & accompanying materials. -- (Series ; numbering)

Notes.
ISBN.
1. Subject heading--Subheading. 2. Subject heading--Subheading.; I. Added entry. II. Title. III. Series.

One of the most common types of catalogue is the Classified Catalogue which is usually divided into two main sections.

i) Classified File

Entries are filed in notation or class number order.

ii) Alphabetical Files

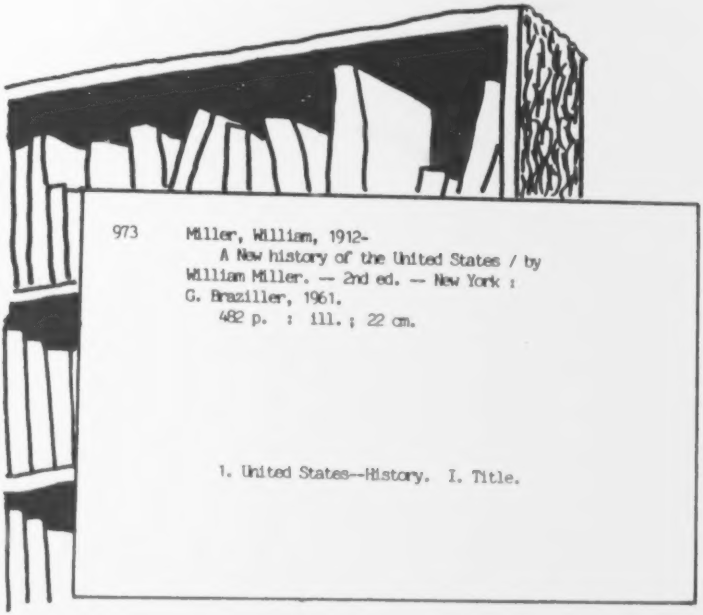
Entries are filed alphabetically in two sequences-

Alphabetical Author/Title Index - entries are filed in one single alphabetical sequence by Author and Title.

Alphabetical Subject Index - entries are filed alphabetically by subject.

Thus in the Classified Catalogue we usually find the following different types of entries -

i) MAIN ENTRY - Filed by notation in the Classified File



973 Miller, William, 1912-
A New history of the United States / by
William Miller. -- 2nd ed. -- New York :
G. Braziller, 1961.
482 p. : ill. ; 22 cm.

1. United States--History. I. Title.

ii) ADDED AUTHOR/TITLE ENTRIES - Filed in one alphabetical sequence by Author and Title

```
                .A New history of the United States.
973         Miller, William, 1912-
                A new history of the United States / by
            William Miller. -- 2d ed. -- New York :
            G. Braziller. 1961.
                482 p. : ill. ; 22 cm.


                1. United States--History.  I. Title.
```

iii) ALPHABETICAL SUBJECT INDEX ENTRIES - Filed in one alphabetical sequence

```
Africa:sociology          308.96
Africa:politics           320.96
Africa:history            960
```

Cataloguing Problems

Using the information provided on the preceding pages, and within the drawn outline of a catalogue card prepare -

a) The Main Entry

b) The Added Title Entry

c) The Alphabetical Subject Entry

for the following titles.

---

1)

MODERN DANCE

by

Gay Cheney

Fourth Edition

Longmans of London
1975

Modern Dance Series number 32

Further Bibliographical information

Book is 85 pages long, illustrated and 25cm high. Bibliography appears on the last two pages and in addition the work includes an index. ISBN 0-25-04839-0 and the class number is 793.32 representing the subject Dance.

ii)

AFRICA REBORN

The story of post colonial history

by

Michael Crowder

Nairobi

Heinemann

Further bibliographical information

The book was published in 1978 and is number five in the Heinemann Mentor Series. The book has 324 pages with a bibliography on the last five in addition to an index. The book is illustrated and is 24 cm high. The class number is 960 representing African History and the ISBN is 0-14-003881.17.

iii)

CULTURE AND ENVIRONMENT

by

F.R. Leavis

Oxford University Press

(O.U.P.)

London - 1974

Further bibliographical information

The book hs seven introductory pages in roman numerals followed by one hundred and fifty seven in arabic, including illustrations. The book is 21cm high,; class number is 420 representing the subject English Language and the ISBN is 0-9875-3567-X iv)

THE OUTLINE OF MUSIC

by

John Lewis

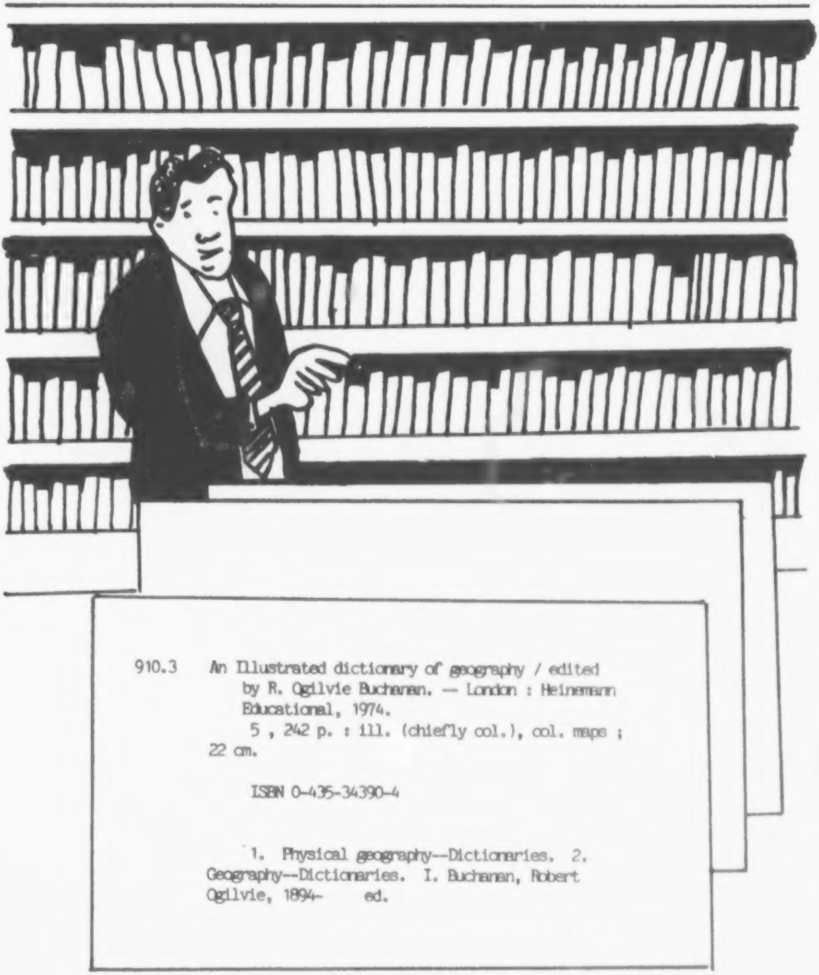
New York
Arco Music Publishing

1976

Further bibliographical information

The book has a total of 451 pages, the first five numbered in roman and the remainder in arabic. A bibliography appears on the last three pages and the book includes an index. The class number is 780 representing the subject Music; the ISBN is 0-8765498-51 and the price is £23.

INTRODUCTION TO ANGLO AMERICAN CATALOGUING RULES



910.3 An Illustrated dictionary of geography / edited
by R. Ogilvie Buchanan. — London : Heinemann
Educational, 1974.
5 , 242 p. : ill. (chiefly col.), col. maps ;
22 cm.

ISBN 0-435-34390-4

1. Physical geography--Dictionaries. 2.
Geography--Dictionaries. I. Buchanan, Robert
Ogilvie, 1894-   ed.

Naturally there are rules to guide us in the cataloguing of library materials the must commonly used being AACR2 - Anglo American Cataloguing Rules. AACR2 represents the culmination of many years work by the American and British Library Associations who have prepared a volume of rules which assists librarians all over the world to catalogue in a standardised and uniform way. AACR2 is quite complex and difficult to use as it contains all the rules necessary for accurate cataloguing.

Take your time and carefully look through AACR2 and in your own words in the space below briefly describe what you find.

Problems

Using the examples from the previous exercise in addition to consulting AACR2 as instructed, prepare the following catalogue entries for the classified catalogue -

i) Main entry
ii) Added Author/or/Title entry
iii) Alphabetical subject entry

You will be provied with -

i) A sample title page
ii) Further bibliographical information
iii) An explanation of the cataloguing problem that you will encounter
iv) An indication of the main rules in AACR2 that you should consult in order to solve that particular problem

---

A HISTORY OF LIBRARIES

by

John Dawson, Jean Smith, Bill Flowers
and Abe Brown

Longmans
London - Nairobi - New York
1978

Further bibliographical information

The book is 371 pages long, is illustrated and is 21cm high. ISBN 0-73482-1-X-4. Bibliography on the last two pages and the class number is 026 representing the subject libraries.

Cataloguing problems and solutions

i) Description

- There are more than 3 authors - Consult rule 1.1F5 Page 24
- There are 3 places of publication - Consult rule 1.4B8 Page 31

ii) Heading

- There are more than 3 authors - Consult rule 21.6C2 Page 298

II)

THE SACRED DRUM

by

Joseph Lepheana and John Lerotholi

Gaborone

Botsalo Books
1982

Further Bibliographical information

Class number is 896 representing the subject African Literature. This is the third edition, contains 376 pages, the first 3 in roman and the remainder in arabic. The last four pages are a bibliography; the book is illustrated and is 25cm high.

Cataloguing problems and solutions

- There is more than one author cited on the title page - Consult rules -

  1.1F4 - page 23 in relation to the description

  21.6C1 - page 297 in relation to the Heading.

III)

CATALOGUING AND CLASSIFICATION
HANDBOOK
Edited by
John Smith
Heinemann
London - New York - Gaborone

Further bibliographical information

The class number is 025.23 representing the subject classification and cataloguing. The book is 354 pages long, including 7 in roman and the remainder in arabic. The last four pages are in the form of a bibliography and the book includes an index. The book is illustrated, 24cm high and is number 4 in the Heinemann Library Science Series. ISBN 0-756-14-123-X.

Cataloguing problems and solutions

i) Description

- The book is produced by an editor - Consult rule 1.1F4 page 23
- There is more than one place of publication-Consult rule 1.4B8 - page 31

ii) Heading

- The book is produced by an editor - Consult rule 21.7A and 7B - page 299

PRACTICAL CATALOGUING WITH AACR2

Using the examples from the previous exercise in addition to consulting AACR2 as instructed prepare the following catalogue entries for the classified catalogue -

i) Main entry
ii) Added Author/or/Title entry
iii) Alphabetical subject entry

You will be provied with -

i) A sample title page
ii) Further bibliographical information
iii) An explanation of the cataloguing problem that you will encounter.
iv) An indication of the main rules in AACR2 that you should consult in order to solve that particular problem.

ORGANIZING KNOWLEDGE IN LIBRARIES
An introduction to information retrieval

by

Albert Edward Lewis

Second Revised Edition, 1981

Andre Deutsch

Further bibliographical information

This book belongs to the Grafton Series and the price is £24. Place of publication is London; there are 448 pages with a bibliography on the last four and an index. The book is 23cm high, the ISBN is 0-233-95836-2 and the class number is 025.3 representing the subject cataloguing.

Cataloguing problems and solutions

i) Description

- The book has a sub-title - Consult rule 1.1E1 page 22
- The edition is revised - Consult rule 1.2B1 page 28.
- A price is included - Consult rule 2.8C1 page 76

II)

BUILDING LIBRARY COLLECTIONS
Fifth Edition

by

Rose Mary Magrill

Scarecrow Press - New York

Further bibliographical information

The book was published in 1979 and is based on the author's Ph.D Thesis which she submitted to the University of Toronto in 1974. There are eight preliminary pages in roman followed by 380 in arabic. There are illustrations and the height is 23cm. The book is number five in the Scarecrow Library Science Series. The class number is 024.8 representing the subject - Collection development: Libraries.

Cataloguing problems and solutions

i) Description

- Information is provided about the author's Ph.D Thesis - Consult rule 2.7B13 page 74 and 75.

III)

THE LIMITS TO GROWTH

Third Edition

Pan Books - London and Sydney
1974

Further bibliographical information

The book is written by Donella H. Meadows and illustrated by William Smith. There are 205 pages and the book is 21cm high. A bibliography appears on the last two pages and the class number is 330.9 representing the subject Economic History.

Cataloguing problems and solutions

i) Heading

- The work is produced by two people who have performed different functions - Consult rules 21.8A and 21.11A pages 302-304

IV)

CONSTRAINTS ON THE ECONOMIC
DEVELOPMENT OF ZAMBIA

by Charles Jones

Fourth Edition

Revised by Bill Brewer
1976

Further bibliographical information

There are 12 preliminary pages in roman and 341 in arabic. The book is illustrated with some in colour and is 22 cm high. The class number is 330.96894 representing the subject Zambia:Economics.

Cataloguing problems and solutions

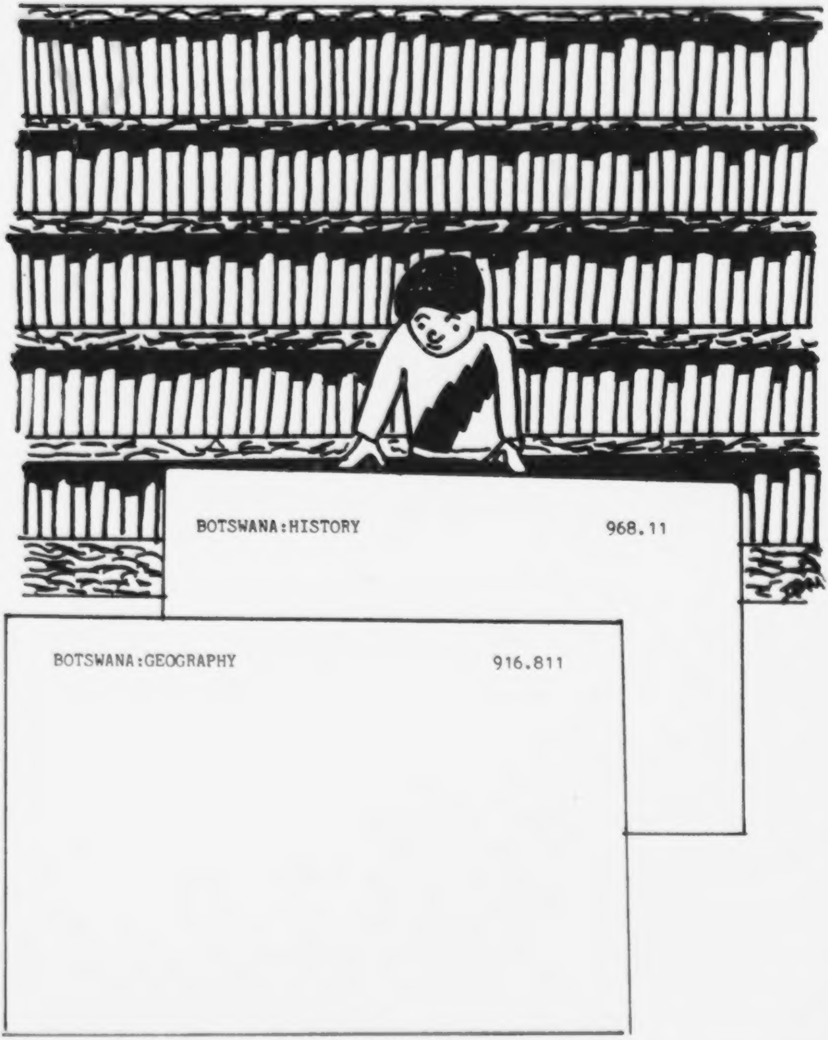
i) Description

- There are some illutrations in colour - Consult rule 2.5C3 page 68

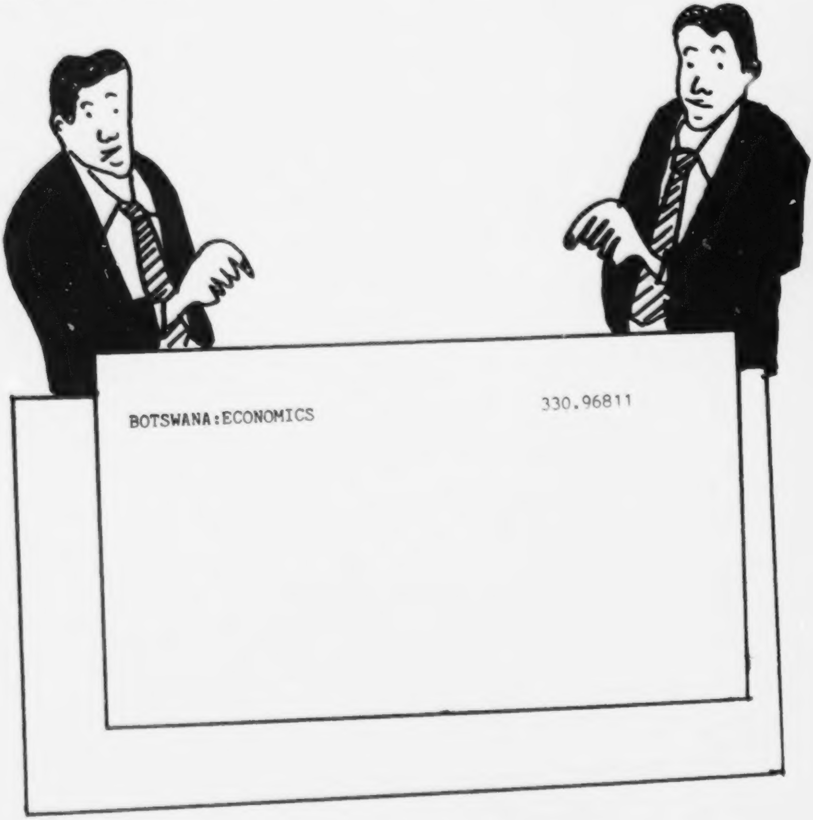
ii) Heading

- The book has been revised - Consult rule 21.12A. page 305

SUBJECT INDEXING


BOTSWANA:HISTORY
968.11
BOTSWANA:GEOGRAPHY
916.811

The third type of entry that we find in the classified catalogue is known as the Alphabetical Subject Index Entry and it contains two basic pieces of information.



BOTSWANA:ECONOMICS 330.96811

i) In the top left hand corner of the entry is the subject.

ii) In the top right hand corner of the entry is the translation of that subject into a class number.

One commonly accepted method for constructing entries for the alphabetical subject index is known as chain indexing. Chain indexing basically involves the translation of a notation assigned to a particular subject back into a natural language in order to provide an appropriate access point in the alphabetical subject index.

Chain indexing procedure

Chain indexing basically involves the following main steps:-

Step 1 - Producing the chain

To make an index entry from the notation 813.5

800 - Literature

810 - American literature

813 - American fiction

813.5 - Twentieth century American fiction

Here we have produced a chain of class terms for each notation.

Step 2 - Analysing the chain

8 - Literature

1 - American

3 - Fiction

5 - Twentieth century

Here we have identified the specific subject of each individual digit in the notation. This is an important process which must be done otherwise important links in the chain will be missed and the indexing will be incomplete.

Step 3 - Constructing the subject entries

Twentieth century:Fiction:American:Literature	813.5
Fiction:American:Literature	813
American:Literature	810
Literature	800

In constructing the index entries the following rules must always be observed.

i) The first term on the index entry is always derived from the last digit of the notation.

ii) Each term in the index entry (except the final main class) should be qualified or further defined by one or more terms in order to reduce ambiguity in the index entries.

iii) Subject terms in the chain which appear irrelevant or which do not add further meaning to the index entry or which merely state the obvious should not be included.

iv) Subject terms should appear from left to right on the index entry according to their increasing generality, that is always upwards in the chain.

v) Separate entries should be made for every possible sought link in the chain with the appropriate notation.

Problems

Now in a similar way produce index entries from the following:

116
225
316
334
625.1
687
837
372.4
294.5
725.97

WHAT DO YOU KNOW?

1) Briefly summarise in your own words what you have learned from this module.

----

2) Using Dewey Decimal Classification Scheme assign as specific a notation as you can to the following.

i) Selection and acquisition (library science) of report literature.

ii) Selection and acquisition of library materials on crowd control.

iii) Ecclesiastical law (Christianity) in Moravian churches.

iv) Pottery (technology) - study and teaching.

v) Historical research and criminal law.

vi) Criminology in the Central African Republic and Chad

vii) History of Zimbabwe

viii) Geography of Malawi

3) Using Anglo-American cataloguing Rules (AACR2) and Dewey Decimal classification (DDC) prepare

- main entry
- added entry (one only)
- subject entry (one only)

for the following title pages

1.

Speed, strength and stamina
A fitness approach to tennis

by

John Dean

Bibliographical information

This is the third edition of this book, published by Doubleday in 1975. Place of publication is New York, and the book contains seven preliminary pages in roman followed by 298 in arabic. The book is illustrated, 22cm high and is number four in the sport in life series. A bibliography appears on the last two pages and the book includes an index ISBN 0-534-00630-2. Class number - 796.342.

2.

Modern Dance

by

Ray Rowden and Michael Grand

Longmans of London
1978
Modern Dance Series number 6

Bibliographical information

This is the second edition, the book contains 10 pages in roman followed by 241 in arabic. There are a number of illustrations and the size is 23cm. There is an index at the end of the book, the price is 34 Pula and the ISBN 0-208-01379-2, class number - 792.3.

3.

The origin of man
by

John Green, Nancy Smith
Bill Brown and Geoff Parsons

Third revised edition
Norton Publishers

London, New York, Paris
1978

Bibliographical information

Book is 129 pages long, is illustrated and is number 5 in the Norton Biology Series. The bibliography on the last 3 pages is followed by an index and the ISBN is 0-208-0166-x.

4.

The New History of Southern Africa
edited by
Michael Campbell

Heinemann
London, New york, Paris, Gaborone
1982

Bibliographical information

Book is 452 pages long, is illustrated includes an index in addition to a bibliography on the last 22 pages. The book is numebr 4 in the Heinemann History of Africa series. ISBN 0-8389-0026.7. Class number 968.